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TOPICS OF THE DAY.

UNITED STATES ARMY PROBLEMS.

THE task of raising the army for war with Spain has taxed the energies of the War Department and the patience of numerous critics. The regular army, when war came on, numbered less than 30,000 men, while the military force called for, by measures already adopted, amounts, according to Adjutant-General Corbin's statement, to about 278,500:

Regular army.....	62,000
Volunteers from state militia (first call).....	125,000
Three cavalry regiments at large.....	3,000
Ten infantry regiments, volunteers (immunes).....	10,000
Engineers at large.....	3,500
Volunteers (second call).....	75,000
Grand total.....	278,500

The legislation enacted for the purpose of raising this army was detailed in THE LITERARY DIGEST May 21. Within four weeks after the President's first call for 125,000 volunteers the adjutant-general reported the mustering in of about 110,000 men, and the First Corps alone had formally passed review by commanding officers. The second call for volunteers (75,000) was issued by the President May 25. The bulk of the regular army was ordered to rendezvous in the South upon the opening of hostilities and the process of recruiting the regiments to full strength began. When volunteer regiments had been mustered in at the various state camps they were ordered to the regular army rendezvous as the War Department saw fit. At these camps the training in regular army formation and movements preliminary to an invasion of Cuba proceeded.

Upon the President devolved the nomination of officers to command the United States army. The striking feature of the first list of appointments, May 4, was the selection of Confederate Generals Fitzhugh Lee and James H. Wheeler and Union Generals James H. Wilson and William J. Sewell for major-generals. This list won very general commendation. Later lists of appoint-

ments have been subjected to criticism because of the nomination of relatives of public men.

Meantime the demand for reinforcements for Admiral Dewey at Manila became imperative, and the organization of an expedition of 15,000 troops was undertaken to be commanded by Major-General Wesley Merritt as military governor of the Philippines.

The magnitude of the labor of recruiting, mustering, equipping, and organizing this army, the lack of preparedness for war, the length of time consumed in the mobilization of troops, and other phases of the army problem, call forth lively comment in the press.

Time for Army Movement.—"The newspaper strategists are complaining because the army does not move at once into Cuba. If they were managing the campaign the army would not wait on the navy. There are 20,000 regulars in camp, and 100,000 volunteers have been sworn into the service. They want this army hurled at once on the Spaniards at Havana. They see no reason for delay. They intimate that the American people are becoming very impatient.

"The people are not impatient. They know more about war than the newspaper strategists. When the army moves on Cuba they want it to move in such force, under such discipline, and with such equipment as will be creditable to the United States and adequate for any exigency that may come upon it.

"When a European nation starts in to rearm its soldiers, two or three years are given to the work. To a nation that has been at peace for thirty years the arming and equipment of 125,000 soldiers is not the work of two or three weeks, or two or three months. As a rule, we do things faster than they do them in Europe, but it is too much to expect that we can call into existence a large army and put modern rifles in the hands of the men in a few days.

"A prominent British statesman is on record as saying that, if a sudden call came upon England to mobilize her army, not more than 40,000 effective men with full train could be put in the field within two weeks. The United States has, in three weeks, concentrated her regular army, and has put into camp 100,000 volunteers."—*The Inter Ocean, Chicago.*

Congress Should Have Made Preparations.—"For years the War and Navy departments have appealed to Congress for sufficiently enlarged allowances to provide for an emergency in our foreign affairs such as is now upon us, but their appeals have been ignored. During the past two years, when a war with Spain seemed increasingly probable, the military and naval authorities have redoubled their pressure, but Congress took no step until forced into precipitate action by the destruction of the *Maine*. It then voted \$50,000,000 in less than fifty minutes, and if money could cause a navy, an army, guns, powder, and supplies to appear betwixt morning and night, we should now be prepared not only to fight a tenth-rate power like Spain, but, if necessary, any other adversary. The executive authorities, since they received Congress's permission to go ahead, have worked days and nights and Sundays. They have scoured the earth for purchasable ships and set the factories of the country to work on double and treble turn in the production of the thousands of articles that enter into a military campaign. Considering the circumstances, and in view especially of the fact that two months ago we had an army of less than 25,000 men scattered over an area equal to continental Europe, and hardly a pound of reserve powder, an extra gun, shell, tent, ambulance, or ration, they have done remarkably well. Within this time they have improvised an army of 150,000 men, partly equipped; blockaded Cuba, destroyed the Spanish-Asiatic squadron, and put the whole machinery of war-making in motion toward yet greater results in the proximate future. But they have done in haste, with waste, and crudely, what should have been done carefully and deliberately,

in prudential preparation, years and years ago."—*The Tribune, Scranton.*

Kind of Defenses Needed.—"It may not be necessary for this country to measure strength with four or five European nations before it secures that immunity from abuse and unfriendliness which is essential to perfect and enduring peace, but at least it should be ready. The war with Spain is not a serious affair in comparison with what a contest with Spain, France, and two or three other nations of the Old World would be. We may fight this war successfully without great previous preparation. But in order to insure a victory in the conflict which Senator Teller thinks is already beginning to throw its dark shadow across the pathway of our future, Congress should provide for all that in such a war this country would need. Every coast should be protected by powerful fortifications. Every harbor should be guarded by monitors or other defense boats. We should have a navy stronger than that of France. Our arsenals should be filled with enough improved rifles to arm, if need be, a million men, and provision should be made for the prompt enrolment of a vast volunteer army which could be equipped and put into the field on short notice. The country is amply able to do all this, and no policy would be more in accord with the wishes of the people."—*The Republican, Denver.*

"There is no power on this continent, nor is there likely to be, which can justify the maintenance of a great military force by the United States. No nation can transport an army for the invasion of the United States sufficiently powerful to cope even with the present military force of this country without absolute control of the ocean. If we are to be brought into conflict with Europe, therefore, it is a big navy, and not a big army, that we need. As long as we are strong enough on the sea to repel transports we have no need of a great army. Great Britain is much nearer her powerful neighbors than we are, and it is in her navy, and not in her army, that she puts her dependence."—*The Sun, Baltimore.*

Difference between Calls for Troops in 1861 and 1898.—"The process of raising the volunteer army has gone on as rapidly as could be expected. Many persons have compared it unfavorably to the response to President Lincoln's call to arms, and in so doing have forgotten or ignored the great difference between the purposes of the proclamation of April 15, 1861, and that of April 23, 1898. President McKinley called for the formation of a volunteer army under an act of Congress then recently passed 'to serve for two years unless sooner discharged.' President Lincoln, on April 15, 1861, called into the service of the United States the militia of the several States. This fact is clearly established by the first paragraph of the proclamation, which reads as follows:

"Whereas, The laws of the United States have been for some time past, and now are opposed, and the execution thereof obstructed, in the States of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas, by combinations too powerful to be suppressed by the ordinary course of judicial proceedings, or by the powers vested in the marshals by law; now, therefore, I, Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, in virtue of the power in me vested by the Constitution and the laws, have thought fit to call forth the militia of the several States of the Union to the aggregate number of 75,000, in order to suppress said combinations, and to cause the laws to be duly executed."

"It will be seen at a glance that President Lincoln called into the service of the United States a force already existing in the condition it was in at the time his proclamation was issued. President McKinley, on the other hand, called for the creation of a volunteer army to be raised and organized in accordance with special legislation and the requirements of the military laws of the United States, and to 'serve for two years unless sooner discharged.' One President called for the militia, and the other summoned into existence an army of 125,000 men."—*The Transcript, Boston.*

National Guard as Volunteers.—"When war was declared against Spain Congress authorized the creation of a volunteer federal army of 125,000 men, under federal officers, for a federal campaign. The President issued a call for volunteers for this army for a two-years' term of service. He had no constitutional right to require the service of the National Guardsmen, nor of any particular individual of the militia of which these guards are composed; no more right than to require the services of the militia in the membership of the various Union League clubs. Nor did he do so. He recommended that members of the National Guard who wanted to enlist be given the preference—that is, if

more volunteers responded than were wanted, the fact that a volunteer was a member of the National Guard was to count in his favor. That was right and wise, for such volunteers would have the advantage of military discipline and training, and could help to impart that discipline and training to others.

"But members of the National Guard were under no such obligation, legal or moral, to volunteer than such as might be deduced from the fact that they possessed some moderate military qualifications. The fact that a man has pledged himself to serve for nine months, under state officers, in a defensive war, puts him under no color of obligation to serve for two years, under federal officers, in an aggressive war. The National Guards are trained state militia, officered by state appointees and organized for the defense of the State, tho they may be called on by the President to go to the succor of other States, or, under certain limitations, the nation, in time of peril. The attempt, by certain critics, to convert them by a stroke of the pen into a federal army, under federal officers, for federal service, in an aggressive campaign of invasion, can be attributed only to ignorance of constitutional provisions or to impatience of the limitations which those provisions impose. The attempt to coerce any man to enlist in the federal army for aggressive warfare simply because he has enlisted in the State Guard for defensive warfare is both irrational and immoral. They who have been clear-sighted enough to see this and brave enough to resist the attempt are entitled to the thanks of the American people."—*The Outlook, New York.*

Failure of the National Guard.—"Congress has at last waked up to the fact that the 'National Guard,' as at present constituted, is anything but national. The experience of the past fortnight has demonstrated that even with plenty of men—two to every one that was wanted—the Guard could not respond promptly to the call of the President for volunteers. Instead of the Guard coming to the front, like firemen at the first toll of the bell, we find them delayed by all sorts of conditions. Had these 'militia,' as the Constitution calls them, been ready to go forward within twenty-four hours after the President's proclamation, Morro Castle might have been a memory to-day. Unless all signs fail, as soon as the war is over, bills will be introduced in Congress to remedy all the defects in the present existing law. The old and senseless prejudice against a standing army is to assert itself once more, and there is a dream of putting the National Guard on such a footing as to have a body of reserves always ready to defend the nation from perils from within and without. It seems to be forgotten that the defects complained of are inherent in any organization that is not subjected to the rigid rules of discipline and the exact training required to fit men for war.

"The temper of Congress is rapidly changing in view of these things; and when the boys in blue get through with Blanco and hang our banners on the outer walls of Morro Castle, we shall, doubtless, see a complete reorganization of the National Guard.

"The War Department officials attribute much of the vexatious



HOW SOME APPREHENSIVE PEOPLE PICTURE UNCLE SAM AFTER THE WAR.
—*The News, Detroit.*

delay encountered in raising the volunteer army to the fact that federal authorities were misled by the statements that practically the entire National Guard would volunteer; that as a whole it was well equipped, and that the only raw recruits that would have to be trained in the primary principles of soldiery and armed and equipped from head to toe would be the 15 or 20 per cent. of the Guard who would be rejected on the physical examination. Instead of this, fully half the men mustered in as members of National Guard regiments are fresh recruits, without uniforms or accoutrements, and without the slightest idea of military movements as tactics. One state executive, in answer to a query as to what troops he had ready to move, wired: 'Have one light battery of artillery mustered in and ready, all except guns, carriages, horses, and harness.' Another state commander-in-chief answered a similar query by saying that he had the State's quota ready, 'all except the equipments.'

"If any one at Washington has been misled he has only himself to blame, for the facts were well known."—*The Army and Navy Journal, New York.*

Men Who Will Lead in Battle.—"The plain fact is, that out of the thirty-seven officers nominated by the President as major-generals and brigadier-generals of volunteers, thirty-six were soldiers of the Civil War and in command of troops. The single exception is General Bates, who did not graduate from West Point until the summer of 1865, just as the war had closed, but has since served nearly thirty-three years in the regular army, reaching the grade of lieutenant-colonel. We further find, on examining the records, that thirty-three out of these thirty-seven volunteer generals are regular army officers to-day, only seven of them having as low a rank as lieutenant-colonel in the regular establishment. The four appointees not in the regular army were men of note in the Civil War, Gens. James H. Wilson, Lee, Wheeler, and Sewell. The truth is that, as *The Army and Navy Journal* expresses it, the four civilian appointees are 'experienced soldiers,' that among the thirty-three selections from the regular army 'we can not see one who has not shown a special aptitude in his military vocation,' and that 'our soldiers will be led into action by men familiar with war and of proved courage and distinguished professional acquisitions.'

"When we turn to the President's staff appointments, these deal with officers whose duties are primarily not that of commanding troops in the field. For such staff officers as quartermasters, commissaries of subsistence, and paymasters, energy, business judgment, and great capacity for hard work are required, and these qualities may be found in civil life, while the activity of youth is not to be expected in the veterans of sixty years, who filled such staff offices between 1861 and 1865. And yet a great number of staff appointments have already been made from the regular army. For example, in the list of Senate confirmations of May 10, including assistant adjutants-general, inspectors-general, chief quartermasters, chief engineers, chief commissaries of subsistence, judge advocates, and chief surgeons, we observe the names of thirty-seven army officers, against nineteen from civil life. . . .

"In short, while in some staff departments of the volunteer army, notably in business departments like those of payment and subsistence, and necessarily in the lower grades of the medical corps, appointments from civil life have been freely made, the leaders of troops in battle under the President's appointments will be found suited to their tasks. The line officers even of the lowest grade thus far appointed from civil life have been exceedingly few."—*The Sun, New York.*

Some Appointments to the Army.—Classified according to reasons for appointment:

SONS OF FATHERS.

Name.	Rank.	Father.
Fred. M. Alger	Captain	Secretary of War.
Russell B. Harrison	Major	Benjamin Harrison.
James G. Blaine	Captain	James G. Blaine.
John A. Logan	Major	Gen. J. A. Logan.
Fitzhugh Lee, Jr.	First Lieutenant	Gen. Fitzhugh Lee.
Jos. B. Foraker, Jr.	Captain	Sen. J. B. Foraker.
Edward Murphy, 2d	Captain	Sen. E. Murphy.
A. C. Gray	Lieut.-Colonel	Senator Gray.
William J. Sewell	Captain	Senator Sewell.
Thomas C. Catchings, Jr.	Captain	Rep. T. C. Catchings.
John A. Hull	Lieut.-Colonel	Representative Hull.
Hugh H. Gordon	Major	Ex-Senator Gordon.
Stewart M. Brice	Captain	Ex-Senator Brice.
Hiram E. Mitchell	Captain	Ex-Senator Mitchell.
John Earle	Captain	Late Senator Earle.

* Declined appointment.

Name.	Rank.	Father.
Seth M. Milliken	Captain	Late Representative Milliken.
R. W. Thompson, Jr.	Captain	Ex-Secretary Thompson.
Britton Davis	Captain	Ex-Gov. E. J. Davis.
C. L. Woodbury	Major	Ex-Governor Woodbury.
W. B. Rochester, Jr.	Captain	Gen. W. B. Rochester.
H. S. New	Captain	Ex-Consul-General New.
P. B. Strong	Captain	Ex-Mayor Strong.
Erskine Hewitt	Captain	Ex-Mayor Hewitt.
Lloyd C. Griscom	Captain	Clement A. Griscom.
W. E. English	Captain	W. H. English.

GRANDSONS.

Name.	Rank.	Grandfather.
Alg. Sartoris	First Lieutenant	General Grant.
Jay Cooke, 3d	Captain	Jay Cooke.
C. E. McMichael	Major	Clayton McMichael.

NEPHEWS.

Name.	Rank.	Uncle.
George S. Hobart	Major	The Vice-President.
W. B. Allison	Captain	Senator Allison.
Stephen Gambrell, Jr.	Captain	Senator Gorman.

SON-IN-LAW.

Name.	Rank.	Father-in-law.
Beverley A. Read	Captain	Senator Money.

CHILDREN OF THE SOCIAL PULL.

Name.	Rank.
Larz Anderson	Captain.
William A. Harper	Captain.
Wm. Astor Chanler	Captain.
John Jacob Astor	Lieutenant-Colonel.
Morton J. Henry	Captain.
G. Creighton Webb	Major.

EX-GOVERNOR.

John G. Evans	Captain.
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OFFICERS OF EXPERIENCE IN THE ABOVE LIST.

Seth M. Milliken, graduate of West Point; P. Bradley Strong, J. J. Astor, and George S. Hobart, militia officers. No others.

—*The Evening Post, New York.*

The Political Soldier.—"The influx of untrained civilians into the army has reached such a volume that fears are expressed at Washington that the effectiveness of the army is to be greatly imperiled. A country which is not a vast military camp must expect that it will be hindered in the early stages of war by the lack of organization and training in its citizen soldiery; it must expect that many of the men in the ranks will be without military preparation. If this country were in the same condition to-day that it was in 1861, it would also understand that many of the officers must be men without previous military training. But the country has decidedly changed since then. There is an abundance of trained men, West Pointers and others, who should be given military office. Raw civilians should not be given places in the army until the most responsible places have been filled by trained officers, and until after deserving regular army officers have been given the promotion they have so long waited for. About 20 per cent. of the rank and file of the volunteers are undrilled. That is bad enough. When it can be so every officer should be a trained man.

"It is said that President McKinley realizes what should be done, but that he is powerless before overwhelming congressional pressure, which assures him that every man named is competent. Of course incompetency will be weeded out after they get into the field, just as they were in the first months of the Civil War, but the process is a costly one."—*The Journal, Minneapolis.*

"Gilded Youth with Commissions."—"The aristocracy of 'pull' as applied to military appointments in this war, by which the sons and relatives of great men, dead and living, are honored without the slightest reference to merit or ability to discharge the duties of the places they get, is a shameful scandal. The people are outraged and disgusted by it. The list has now grown so great as to be difficult to follow. . . . These men, as captains of the quartermaster's and commissary departments, are to assist in the conquest of Cuba and the Philippines.

"Every one of the lot ought to be in the ranks, and men who have served with the regulars or militia put over them. The less inexperience we can have among the officers of the volunteer army the better. It is to the credit of ex-President Harrison that he opposes the confirmation of his son, Russell B. Harrison, to be assistant adjutant-general with the rank of captain. There is also said to be opposition in the Senate to the confirmation of young James G. Blaine, as there ought to be. The whole business is sickening. Who says the United States of America has no gilded aristocracy?

"It is refreshing to read that Richard Harding Davis, now act-

ing as correspondent of the *London Times*, declines to accept a commission as assistant adjutant-general with the rank of captain. He is too busy in the first place, and besides declares, with refreshing frankness, that he knows nothing of military duties. He adds the crushing statement that in his belief 'such appointments should be given to men in the regular service who are working hard for promotion and are willing to perform the duties.' Good for Mr. Davis, who has no use for false gilding at the expense of Uncle Sam and the brave fellows who deserve the real honors!—*The Republican, Springfield.*

"THE SPANIARD IN HISTORY."

THE average newspaper reader feels the need of a sketch-book of leading events in Spanish history in order to obtain a proper perspective in judging the factors involved in the present conflict with Spain. Such a book in handy form and popular style was issued last month under the title above quoted. "The author," James C. Fernald, "believes that it is possible to gain an estimate of a nation by swift characterization at critical moments of its history, which shall be more just, as well as more vivid, than any that can be gained by monotonously tracing its chronology." Following this plan, in the compass of 145 pages, we are given a view of "The Spanish Race," "Rise of the Spanish Monarchy," "The Inquisition," "Conquest of Granada," "Expulsion of the Jews and Moors," the Spaniard "in the West Indies," "in Mexico and Peru," "on the Throne" (Philip II.), "in the Netherlands," "in the Philippines," "in Cuba," and "on the Sea." Since Spain's present decline to a fourth-rate European power has not been caused by foreign invasion, internal causes must be sought for, and the author draws indictment after indictment against Spanish character as revealed in history. He reminds us that in a peculiar sense "Spain to-day is the Spain of all time," and concludes that the lesson of interest to the American people is that the Spaniard "is not one to be trusted with the control of a weak or subject race. The sword which has been drawn in behalf of the oppressed of Cuba must not be sheathed till Spanish power has ceased to touch with its blight the Western World."

The Spanish race is "a people of mingled blood, sprung from a greater variety of stocks than any other European nation," and "they still bear the stamp of their diverse ancestry, and of the stormy scenes amid which these various races were, to a certain degree, welded into one." The rise of the Spanish monarchy is a record of intrigue and internecine strife, succeeded by the union of the provinces of Aragon and Castile through the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella.

The Tribunal of the Inquisition, established in their reign, is described. "Even more serious than the immediate wo and horror were the permanent results":

"The tendency to intolerance, which time might have softened, was crystallized by the Inquisition, and deeply ingrained into the Spanish character. The chivalrous consideration for the Moslem enemies, of which so many examples were seen at and before the conquest of Granada, utterly disappeared within half a century.

"By making terrible suffering an enjoyable spectacle, which no one must fail to attend, and at which no one, on peril of his life, must manifest a thrill of pity, the Inquisition trained a nation to delight in cruelty for its own sake, and did much to perpetuate that ferocious spirit that makes Spanish women of to-day crowd in among shouting and delighted thousands to watch the bloody butchery of the bull-fight. Coming, as it did, just before the discovery of America, this training of the Inquisition aggravated that tendency to inhumanity which so commonly characterized civilized men in their dealings with savages. Unpardonable cruelties have been thus inflicted by many nations. English and Americans have made a record to sadden the heart of humanity in their dealings with the Indians of the East and of the West. But no nation has a story of such desolating, pitiless, exterminating barbarity as that of the Spanish conquests in America. The

Spaniard who had seen the noble, cultured, and revered of his own land, honored men and delicate women, the youthful and the aged, led out in shameful garb to be burnt to death in the face of day, and all under the awful sanctions of religion and in the august presence of monarchs and princes—that man could not feel much compassion for the agonies of poor, ignorant, heathen savages, every one of whom he was taught to believe richly merited the terrors of the *auto da fé*. Hence the change that came over the Spanish troops of the sixteenth century. They were no longer the chivalrous knights who had achieved the conquest of Granada or followed the banner of the great captain, Gonsalvo de Cordova, on the fields of Italy. They kept incomparable valor and prowess, but they joined with it a frantic ferocity against the unarmed and unresisting, such as has never been paralleled by any other race of civilized men.

"Intellectually and morally, the Inquisition stopped Spain in the Middle Ages. The only safe opinion was an opinion which had proved its orthodoxy by the fact that no one had ever been burnt for it. Thus march of modern thought went by, and left Spain, as she stands to-day, a medieval power amid the advance of modern civilization."

In the conquest of the province of Granada (1481-92) Ferdinand's policy was simply to reduce the prodigally fertile land to desolation, reminding us where Spain and the Cuban insurgents of to-day learned their methods of warfare. Prescott is quoted:

"Instead of one campaign, the army took the field in spring and autumn, intermitting its efforts only during the intolerable heats of the summer, so that the green crop had no time to ripen, ere it was trodden down under the iron heel of war.

"The apparatus for devastation was also on a much greater scale than had ever before been witnessed. From the second year of the war, thirty thousand foragers were reserved for this service, which they effected by demolishing farmhouses, granaries, and mills (which last were exceedingly numerous in a land watered by many small streams), by eradicating the vines, and laying waste the olive-gardens and plantations of oranges, almonds mulberries, and all the rich varieties that grew luxuriant in this, highly favorable region. This merciless devastation extended for more than two leagues on either side of the line of march."

"Crops may grow again, if an industrious and free population is left. Villages may be rebuilt, but when fruit-trees are cut down, and all that time has accumulated on great plantations destroyed, future generations are impoverished, and the way prepared for enduring desolation. All the centuries since have not restored to Spain what her own sovereigns, in the ten years' war against Granada, destroyed. . . .

"The foundations of the Spanish system, which holds dominion



THE SPANISH CAVALIER—UP TO DATE.

A Spanish cavalier stood in his retreat,
And on his guitar played a tune, drear;
The music so neat, did oft-times repeat—
Remember what he says isn't true, dear!

—*The Journal, Minneapolis.*

to consist in mere armed occupation, without regard to the resources of the earth or the welfare and happiness of the people, were then thoroughly laid—a system since carried out with unfaltering and unsparing rigor in every land on which the Spaniard has set foot for four hundred years."

The heart-hardening effects of the expulsion of Jews and Moors is dwelt upon. One hundred and sixty thousand Jews, a producing class of people, were expelled by a decree giving them four months in which to depart, never to return under penalty of death. They were permitted to dispose of their effects and to take the proceeds with them in any form, "except that they must carry no gold and silver out of the country." Children under four years of age had to be left behind so that they might be brought up in the Christian faith.

Upon the discovery of the West Indies the system of *repartimientos*, or distribution of Indian slaves to assist the conquerors in cultivating estates, was introduced. It was decreed that "the slaves should be paid and instructed in the Christian religion"—humane regulations, which were construed "with their usual latitude by the Spaniards." In twelve years several hundred thousand natives had perished, being starved and worked to death. "The starvation and extermination of the Cubans to-day are strictly in the line of Spanish conquest and rule for four hundred years. The *reconcentrados* of the nineteenth century answer to the *repartimientos* of the sixteenth."

The reign of Philip the Second, said to have been the first thoroughly typical Spanish king, is chosen to illustrate Spanish rule at home—that of "a royal monster of perfidy, ingratitude, tyranny, cruelty, and lust." We quote several paragraphs:

"The fate of two envoys, the Marquis of Bergen and Baron Montigny, sent by the Government of the Netherland provinces to present their grievances, well illustrates the monarch's character. As ambassadors, their lives were sacred by the immemorial laws of nations. They were held in wearisome captivity till it was found that Bergen was slowly dying of an obscure disease, aggravated by homesickness. Philip sent one of his subservient nobles, Ruy Gomez, Prince of Eboli, to the sick man, to condole with him as a friend, but with careful written instructions, that if he found he was *sure to die*, he should promise him a speedy return to the Netherlands; but *if there was a chance of his getting well*, he should only hold out a distant possibility of return. Bergen soon after died in captivity.

"Montigny was reserved for a darker fate. He was tried and condemned by the Council of Blood in Brussels, while he himself was closely imprisoned in Spain. Philip conferred with his council as to the means of executing the sentence without public scandal. The council recommended slow poison. But Philip adjudged that method not severe enough. The condemned man must know, and the public must not know, that he was executed. Letters to the king, telling first of Montigny's severe illness and later of his death, were written at Madrid, under the king's supervision. These were given to certain officers, who took them to Valladolid, six miles from Montigny's prison at Simancas. There the death-doing party waited, while the king's physician daily visited the prisoner, who was in perfect health, and every day gave out more and more alarming reports of his illness. When all was ready, the notary, priest, and executioner, all sworn to secrecy under pain of death, left Valladolid by night, strangled the baron with all due formalities in his cell by night, returned by night to Valladolid, and sent to the king the letter relating Montigny's death from fever, which the monarch had put into their hands ere they left Madrid. The victim was buried in the robe of a Franciscan monk, which came up high enough on the neck to cover the marks of strangulation. It is noticeable that Don Carlos was also buried in a Franciscan robe. Philip sent the letters which his agents had signed, to be given out publicly by Alva in the Netherlands, and with them, for Alva's reading only, a full account of the real infamous facts, of which the monarch had not the grace to be ashamed.

"So perfectly had he covered his trail, that it was hidden for centuries from the eyes of the world, till the researches of our own day brought it to light in the letters of the king and his ministers preserved in the archives of Simancas. Since Spain's ideal

monarch could thus perfidiously do to death one who came to him in the sacred character of herald and envoy, no man need wonder that when an American battle-ship is blown up at night in a Spanish port, and at a buoy to which she had been towed by a Spanish pilot, in a time of profound peace, the deed should be viewed in the light of the history of the past; and that all Americans should believe that there may have been a countryman of the second Philip base enough to do the deed, and crafty enough to cover his tracks till the sea shall give up its dead.

"But Philip's bigotry was as unlimited as his vices. It was all he had of religion, and had become the consuming passion of his narrow, profligate, perfidious, and ferocious soul. This led to the long series of almost incredible outrages that mark the sad, grand story of the Netherlands."

From the author's indictment of Spanish rule in Cuba we quote a single paragraph:

"And not only Weyler, but comparatively mild-tempered men like Blanco and Sagasta, can see no reason why any one should interfere, and regard any claim of humanity on the part of the people of the United States as absurd affectation. Yet a tithe of what Spain is now spending for war in behalf of oppression would have fed all these unfortunates, and averted all the misery and lingering death. This obtuseness of inhumanity is the last count in the indictment of Spanish rule. The men who are capable of doing this, and incapable of seeing the wrong of it, are not to be trusted to govern any subject population. No system of 'autonomy' which they are to administer and interpret would have any value. As a colonizer, Spain has had the ample trial of centuries, and been wofully found wanting. It only remains to decree that she shall perform her bloody experiments on human nature no more."

The chapter on "The Spaniard in the Philippines," besides containing statistics and a map, details the burden of taxation on natives which frequently constitutes a life obligation which can not be met. "The administration is rotten from skin to core." The author says:

"Spain has held the Philippines by armed occupation for four hundred and fifty years, seeking to wring from the people all that rigorous and ruinous taxation can extort, while giving them none of the benefits of higher civilization. She has now not an ounce of power outside the range of her guns. The natives, once comparatively peaceful, have become savage and cruel under Spanish oppression.

"Some power with the true genius of colonization should control the islands. The United States would do well—not from greed of empire, but as trustees of seven millions of people—to take possession of the group, relieve the inhabitants from the Spanish system of spoliation and oppression, develop their agricultural, mineral, and commercial resources, introduce a broad and enlightened system of government and education, and make the islands the Hawaii of the Orient."

STATE LAW VS. INTERSTATE LAW.

THE United States Supreme Court has just reminded Iowa, South Carolina, Pennsylvania, and New Hampshire that the Constitution invests Congress alone with the right to regulate commerce between the States. Iowa and South Carolina had closely restricted the importation of liquor within their borders, and Pennsylvania had forbidden and New Hampshire had restricted the importation of oleomargarin, and their interdictions are declared null. The Supreme Court affirms in the test cases that an "original package" of liquor or oleomargarin from another State, consigned to a person within the State, must be allowed to reach the consignee. The liquor cases were decided May 9 and the oleomargarine cases May 23. These decisions make it plain that no State can forbid importations of articles, the State's police power beginning after importation. Free trade exists between the States of the Union.

In the cases of Iowa and South Carolina, the decisions have an important bearing on the liquor laws. The Wilson law, passed by

Congress several years ago, it will be remembered, provided that liquors imported into a State should be subject to the state laws, even when in original packages. The present decisions prevent the Wilson law from affecting the liquor while it is in transit. But the court does not deny that as soon as it reaches the consignee, the liquor comes under state law, and, in Iowa and South Carolina, can not be sold, given away, or transported. In Iowa, the case arose from the arrest of T. B. Rhodes, a station agent, for moving a box of liquors from a car to a warehouse, in violation of the law forbidding the transportation of liquor within the State without a certificate. In South Carolina, the case arose from the seizure, by the State, of liquors consigned by California wine-dealers to an agent in Charleston. The liquors were seized under the South Carolina law because they had not been inspected by the state authorities. Both cases were decided against the States, under the interpretations outlined above. Substantial majorities were given for both decisions, altho several justices dissented. Neither of the state liquor laws was found unconstitutional.

These decisions determine the limit of the interstate-commerce law. Heretofore some judicial authorities have held that the interstate law ceased to cover goods as soon as they had crossed the state boundary line. Others held that the interstate law covered goods only till they were unloaded from the car; and still others, that the law covered the goods till they were actually in the hands of the consignee. The last view is upheld by the Supreme Court.

Comments on these decisions are grouped below:

Limit of Interstate Law.—"The question was whether liquor in original packages shipped in another State becomes subject to the police power of the State to which it is consigned the moment it enters it. In other words, does interstate commerce end at the state line, or continue until the goods reach the person for whose use they are intended? The case turned on the proper construction of the Wilson law, passed some years ago by Congress, which provided that liquors imported into a State should be subject to the police power as tho they had been manufactured there, and shall not be exempt by reason of having been brought in original packages.

"Justice White, in the opinion embodying the court's decision, holds that the law was not intended to and did not cause the power of the State to attach to an interstate-commerce shipment while the merchandise was in transit. Until the merchandise arrives at the point of destination and is delivered to the consignee it must be considered to be in transit. We do not see how this conclusion can be successfully controverted. The dissenting judges believe interstate commerce ends when goods are landed at a railway station, but this contention would simply destroy interstate commerce in all cases where state laws conflicted with federal regulations. Would men sell or buy goods which agents could not deliver? If interstate-commerce laws are any protection at all they should protect consignees ordering goods from other States.

"It may be that the court's decision takes the life out of the Wilson anti-original package statute, but that does not prove it to be wrong or illogical."—*The Evening Post, Chicago.*

A Lesson for Prohibitionists.—"There has recently come to notice another illustration of the necessity that the United States Government should be in harmony with prohibitory or reform legislation on the part of the States in order that the same may be effective. The United States Supreme Court has just handed down two decisions upon cases arising under the liquor laws of South Carolina and Iowa. In both of these cases the state law had been appealed to to prevent the delivery of liquor imported into the State to a consignee. The court in these decisions sustains in each case the constitutional validity of the state law, the dispensary in South Carolina and the prohibitory law in Iowa, but holds that until the liquor has been delivered to the party to whom it is consigned by the shipper from outside the State, it is not under the control of the state law. If that party receiving the liquor shall attempt to sell it, he at once comes into conflict with the law of the State, but if it is for his own personal use the State can not interfere. The only particular bearing that these

decisions will have upon the laws of the States in question will be to make their violation a little more feasible. To Prohibitionists they will teach the lesson that nothing short of national Prohibition recognized by the Government at Washington, and administered by a party pledged to that policy, will effectively cope with the liquor traffic."—*The Voice, New York.*

State's Right to Conduct a Monopoly.—"Among the decisions rendered this week by the United States Supreme Court is one which affirms the validity of the South Carolina dispensary system in its essential features. Three judges dissent—Chief Justice Fuller and Justices Shiras and McKenna—but a substantial majority of the court accepts the view that a State has the right to conduct the liquor traffic on its own account as an exclusive state monopoly—subject only to the qualification that a citizen may import liquors from beyond the State for his individual use without interference from the State. . . .

"The decision is of the first importance as establishing the right of a State to set up and conduct not only a public liquor monopoly, but any industrial monopoly."—*The Republican, Springfield.*

Impossible Forty Years Ago.—"The main question at issue was the right of a State to prohibit the introduction and sale of oleomargarin within its borders. The court holds that a State has no such right. Forty years ago such a decision would not only have been unconstitutional, but the court rendering would have been impeached. The provisions of the interstate-commerce law now obtain, and they make a radical departure from the old theory of the right of a State to regulate its own commercial concerns. This law recognizes only a police supervision of commercial commodities coming into or going out of the State by the commonwealth, thus depriving the State of the function of sovereignty over movable property in which people of another have interest. The only exception is that a State may quarantine against disease-infected commodities and persons, but even then the national Government may, if it chooses, decide whether such quarantine is justified by the facts. The interstate-commerce law was the culmination of the granger legislation of more than a quarter of a century to regulate the railways, and the people welcomed it, but only a few saw how completely it would annul the old doctrine of state rights."—*The Times, Kansas City.*

Oleomargarin in Politics.—"The decision of the United States Supreme Court affecting the oleomargarin law of Pennsylvania is practically only a reaffirmation of the decision rendered in the Iowa 'original-package' case of several years ago. But it will have its effect in educating public sentiment to the demand for a modification of the law that will recognize the rights of all the people and take away from the politicians the lever they have used so effectively upon the rural population of the State. . . .

"A great deal of misrepresentation has been indulged on the oleomargarin question. Prohibitory legislation has been devised by the political class, based upon false pretenses, to secure, first, the support of the agricultural class and afterward to use the threat of repeal for the purpose of bulldozing the same class into supporting the political machines. It will be a blessing to the farmers when all of this legislation is wiped off the statute-books. The internal-revenue law puts a handicap upon the artificial butter and provides reasonable precautions against selling it for anything except what it is. It would be entirely proper for the States to exact an additional revenue upon it and extend the surveillance to the retail trade. Beyond that it should be sold freely, for the advantage of not only the dealers and consumers, but the makers of genuine butter, as well."—*The Dispatch, Pittsburg.*

What Militarism Does for a Nation.—"Out of the strong came forth weakness, and out of all this martial ardor against Spain *The Friends' Intelligencer* (Philadelphia) procures a striking argument for peace. It says:

"Studied however superficially, and from whatever point of view, Spain stands as a representative of the rule of the sword. It needs not be inquired why; the one fact is at present essential. Its history is that of a 'martial,' a 'warlike,' a military nation. It has most extremely and most perfectly pursued that rule, so precious to some, of not permitting its people to forget how to fight. It has never suffered their 'patriotism' to decay by prolonged periods of peace. It has never allowed the peaceful, or

even the peaceable, disposition to grow. Conflicts abroad or at home; colonial rebellions, or civil wars; revolutions, or desperate struggles—these have engaged Spain for centuries. Any one who knows even a smattering of history knows this; any one who doubts can easily read for himself. From a time so remote that history had hardly begun, Spain has been a fighting nation.

"If, then, the prescription of the militarists—those in uniform, and those even more fierce in civil life—that 'war is needed from time to time, to maintain a country's vigor,' were a good one, and not a travesty on all that is good, what should be seen in Spain? Plainly, a nation of extraordinary strength. Its 'valor' should have placed it at the head of Europe. Its headship of Europe should have given it the lead of the world. . . .

"The fact is, that Spain exemplifies it perfectly, that the war system grows by the evils it feeds on, and not only consumes and eats out the industrial ability of a nation, but weakens and tends to destroy every virtuous energy of the people. That which might go to the building-up of national character goes to processes of waste, corruption, and profligacy. Cruelty takes the place of humanity, and callousness of kindness."

THE "OREGON'S" OBJECT-LESSON.

THE United States battle-ship *Oregon* (Captain Charles E. Clark) has broken the naval records in a voyage from Puget Sound to Key West all the way around South America. The *Oregon* left Puget Sound on March 6, and eighty-one days later anchored off Key West in perfect order, having covered in that time a total distance of 17,499 miles. She left San Francisco March 19; crossed the equator March 31; coaled at Callao, Peru, April 4; entered the Straits of Magellan, April 16; was joined by the gunboat *Marietta* at Punta Arenas, Chile, April 17; reached Rio Janeiro, April 30, where news of the declaration of war and Dewey's victory was received; picked up the purchased cruiser *Nietheroy* on the Brazilian coast; put in at Bahia, May 8, and received orders to look out for the Cape Verde fleet; was reported in the vicinity of the West Indies, May 20, and reached the harbor of Key West, May 26. The *New York Herald*, from which these particulars are taken, says that four new records were thus made, viz.:

"The longest voyage ever made by a battle-ship.

"A continuous run without a single stop of 4,500 knots, the distance between San Francisco and Callao, . . . never equaled by any other battle-ship.

"Covering a distance of 2,484 knots at an average speed of thirteen knots . . . another unequaled record.

"A run of 155 knots in ten hours . . . hitherto unparalleled."

The *Oregon* is a battle-ship of 10,288 tons, in specifications and equipment a counterpart of the *Massachusetts*. Her keel was laid in the San Francisco yards in 1891, and she earned a heavy premium on trial by exceeding the required speed of 15 knots. She has a complement of 424 men.

The newspapers comment less on the features of the performance itself than upon the alleged demonstration of the necessity of having a Nicaragua canal.

Shall We Move Forward?—"The cost of the Nicaragua canal will about equal the price of twenty war-ships. What is one hundred millions of dollars compared with the vast interests that the canal would foster and protect? This war with Spain is opening our eyes to many things. In a day we swept forward and became a leading figure in the situation in the far East. To-day we may move onward in a new line. Conservatism is a good thing to conjure with, but it is through strong, aggressive spirit that nations and the world advance. The war already has cemented the sections firmly together; it has given us a standing among the nations of the world that is filled with safety and prestige; it has established a union of sympathy between this nation and Great Britain that holds out rich promise for the future of the race; it has pointed out our strength and it has shown us our weaknesses, and the greatest of these is the lack of swift and easy communication with our thousands of miles of sea coast.

The remedy for this is the construction of the Nicaragua canal, at no matter what cost. And if the war shall result in sending the old fogies to the rear and in the inauguration of a policy that will insure the construction of this canal and the pursuit of all other aggressive plans that reason, the age, and our interests dictate, then the conflict will not have been waged in vain."—*The North American, Philadelphia*.

Commercial and Strategic Considerations.—"But commercial as well as strategic reasons warrant us in giving our early attention to this grave problem. With the Nicaragua canal in operation the South Atlantic and Gulf ports would be enabled to carry on direct trade relations with the East, much to the benefit of the industrial and commercial interests of this section. Furthermore, the South American countries which border upon the Pacific Ocean, including Peru, Colombia, Ecuador, and Bolivia, would find it largely to their interest, on account of the direct communication thus established, to purchase their supplies in this market. In the good results which would accrue from the opening of the Nicaragua canal, the entire country would participate. If the present war with Spain serves to bring about the opening of this needed waterway between the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific Ocean, it will be credited with doing vastly more for the civilization and progress of the world than the mere destruction of Spain's colonial despotism."—*The Constitution, Atlanta*.

"Were the canal now open to navigation, New York would be several days nearer to Manila than is Cadiz. By means of a canal across the isthmus the *Oregon* could have saved thirty-four days on her trip from San Francisco to join the Atlantic squadron. It would shorten the sailing distance between Sandy Hook and the Golden Gate by more than one half, and, if the interior lake through which the canal is expected to pass were utilized by us as a naval station, war-ships could make a dash from there to any threatened port of the United States, making one squadron easily available for duty either to the east or the west. Even in the present slight emergency the short route would give us an advantage not easily estimable. Its importance to us in a contest with any power of equal rank would infinitely outweigh the cost of the improvement."—*The Tribune, Detroit*.

"The Nicaragua Sophistry."—"The special organs of the annexation and Nicaragua canal schemes are indulging in paragraphs about the demonstration by the war of the necessity of the Nicaragua canal, and intimations that those who have opposed the blind passage of the bill giving \$100,000,000 to the scheme are responsible for the length of time that the *Oregon* has been in traveling from the Pacific to the Atlantic coast. As the cost of the voyage of the *Oregon* is less than the interest on the proposed debt for the time of its voyage, and as the other battle-ships have sedulously done nothing at all while the *Oregon* has been on the way, the argument is not a very crushing one.

"But it contains a characteristic misrepresentation that deserves exposure. It is a variation on the stock one about the necessity of obtaining a coaling-station in Hawaii, which we have had the grant of for many years, without using; but it is equally dishonest. The misrepresentation is that the canal is opposed as such. No important element has denied the value or convenience of an interoceanic canal. No one has objected to the full surveys which will determine its physical feasibility and its cost. But what the good sense of the country very strenuously objects to is: First—That the United States shall pledge itself to \$100,000,000



MORE JOY IN MADRID.

SAGASTA: "Hooray! Your Majesty, the *Oregon* hasn't caught our fleet!"
—*The Inter Ocean, Chicago*.

of debt before it has been even shown that the canal can be built at all; and second, to doing it for the aid of a bankrupt corporation that has put practically nothing into the project, but would like to exchange ten or twelve millions of watered stock for bonds guaranteed by the United States.

"The Dispatch has frequently favored the appropriation of the sum required for the full surveys necessary before the matter can be intelligently acted on. The pretense of a survey made by the officer now under court-martial for his superintendence of a dry-dock which will not hold water has been fully exposed by subsequent examinations. Even the last commission appointed with the intention of having the report made in favor of the canal has reported that it can not be settled whether it can be built so as to be of any use until more protracted and costly surveys are made.

"The Dispatch does not want any money of the United States put into the canal job until it has been reported to be feasible by competent and impartial engineering authority; nor does it want the enterprise saddled with a \$100,000,000 debt to a political corporation. Nor do we think the people of the United States want it, either."—*The Dispatch, Pittsburg.*

CALENDAR OF THE WAR.

FEBRUARY 15: The United States battle-ship *Maine* is destroyed in Havana harbor.

March 28: The United States Naval Board of Inquiry reports that the *Maine* was destroyed by an external explosion.

April 11: President McKinley sends his Cuban message to Congress, setting forth the failure of diplomatic negotiations to settle the problem and leaving Congress to take measures to end intolerable conditions.

April 18: Spain addresses a memorandum to the powers—in effect an appeal against United States assumption and aggression.

April 19: Congress passes joint resolutions directing the President to intervene in Cuba, and to call out United States forces to end the Cuban war.

April 20: President McKinley signs the Cuban resolutions. An ultimatum is cabled to Spain requiring her, within three days, to relinquish authority and withdraw forces from Cuba. Señor Polo y Bernabe, Spanish Minister at Washington, upon receipt of notification of the ultimatum, withdraws. The Queen Regent of Spain addresses the Cortes, calling for national support of the boy king against United States aggression.

April 21: United States Minister Woodford is given his passports at Madrid.

April 22: The President proclaims a blockade of Cuban ports. The *Buena Ventura* is the first vessel seized.

April 23: The President calls for 125,000 volunteers. A war-revenue bill is introduced in the House of Representatives.

April 24: Spain issues a decree, declaring that a state of war exists by reason of the aggression of the United States; she reserves the right of privateering. Great Britain proclaims neutrality.

April 25: Congress, responding to a message from the President, issues a declaration that war exists. The War Department calls on the governors of States and Territories for quotas of troops. John Sherman, Secretary of State, resigns.

April 26: The President proclaims adherence to the rules of the Declaration of Paris and defines shipping rights. Spain addresses an additional note to the powers stigmatizing the conduct of the United States Consul-General Lee. William R. Day is promoted to be Secretary of State.

April 27: Matanzas, Cuba, is bombarded and the Spanish earthworks are silenced.

April 29: Portugal issues a proclamation of neutrality (following similar action already taken by Great Britain, Italy, Switzerland, Netherlands, Sweden and Norway, Colombia, Mexico, Russia, France, Korea, Argentine Republic, Japan, and Uruguay). A Spanish fleet under Admiral Cervera sails westward from Cape Verde Islands. Spanish cavalry at Fort Cabanas, Cuba, are dispersed by shots from the *New York*.

April 30: The steamer *Paris*, auxiliary cruiser, arrives in New York from Europe.

May 1: The Asiatic squadron, commanded by Commodore Dewey, destroys the Spanish fleet at Manila, Philippine Islands, without the loss of a man or serious injury to his ships. Eight Americans are wounded. The Spanish loss is reported as 300 killed, 400 wounded.

May 3: The Spanish Cortes reassembles with great excitement and disorder.

May 4: The President nominates eleven major-generals and twenty-six brigadier-generals of the United States army. Martial law is proclaimed in Spanish cities on account of riots. The Cuban Parliament is opened by Captain-General Blanco. Lord Salisbury's speech on "living" and "dying" nations, before the Primrose League in London, attracts international attention.

May 5: Bread riots continue in Spain.

May 6: The French steamer *Lafayette* is seized by blockading vessels but released.

May 7: Commodore Dewey's official report of the victory at Manila is received at Washington; the President cables thanks from the American people and appoints him acting rear-admiral.

May 9: The President notifies Congress of Commodore Dewey's achievement, and his recommendation of a formal vote of thanks is adopted. The War Department decides to mobilize troops at Chickamauga, Washington, San Francisco, Tampa, Mobile, San Antonio, and New Orleans.

May 10: It is reported that Spain's Cape Verde fleet has returned to Cadiz. Premier Sagasta gives out an important interview on the Spanish-Cuban situation. He said that the Government did more than should have been done to avoid a conflict, until contempt by the United States made war inevitable. "Spain is desolated and ruined by internal troubles. The United States has coveted Cuba for a long time."

May 11: The authorities decided to send 15,000 troops to reinforce Rear-Admiral Dewey at Manila, under command of Gen. Wesley Merritt, selected to act as military governor of the Philippines. The organization of a Spanish expedition to the Philippines is reported from Madrid. In an engagement at Cardenas, Cuba, the United States torpedo-boat *Winslow* is disabled, Ensign Worth Bagley and four sailors are killed, and three other Americans are wounded. At Cienfuegos, Cuba, one American is killed and seven wounded while cutting cables. Severe losses are inflicted upon the Spanish forces on shore.

May 12: Rear-Admiral Sampson, seeking to find the Spanish fleet, bombards San Juan, Porto Rico, and damages the fortifications. Two Americans are killed and seven wounded. The United States transport steamer *Gussie* fails to land troops and ammunition at Port Cabanas, Cuba, after a brush with troops on shore. Spain's cabinet is in process of reorganization. Joseph Chamberlain speaks at Birmingham, England, on an Anglo-American alliance.

May 13: Spain's Cape Verde fleet is located at Martinique, French West Indies. The United States "flying squadron," under Commodore Schley, sails from Hampton Roads.

May 14: The Cape Verde fleet is sighted at Curaçao, Dutch West Indies.

May 15: Rear-Admiral Dewey reports that he is maintaining a strict blockade and can take Manila at any time.

May 16: The Spanish cabinet resigns. The Cape Verde fleet leaves Curaçao.

May 17: Premier Sagasta forms a new Spanish cabinet.

May 18: The Navy Department announces that the United States battle-ship *Oregon* from San Francisco is safe in West Indian waters. The United States cruiser *Charleston* sails from San Francisco for Manila, but returns on account of disabled machinery.

May 19: Spain's Cape Verde fleet is said to have safely reached Santiago de Cuba. Señor Leon y Castillo, Spanish Minister to France, decides to stay in Paris for Spain's sake, rather than accept a cabinet portfolio.

May 20: Premier Sagasta, speaking for the new cabinet, declares to the Cortes that war will be prosecuted at any cost.

May 21: The United States cruiser *Charleston* starts again from San Francisco for Manila.

May 23: The First Corps of the United States army, 9,000 men, is reviewed at Chickamauga. Adjutant-General Corbin announces that (one month from the call for 125,000 troops) 112,000 volunteers have been mustered in.

May 25: The President issues a second call, for 75,000 volunteers. Three troop-ships with 2,500 men, under command of Brigadier-General Anderson, sail from San Francisco for the Philippines. The *Oregon* reports at Jupiter Inlet, Fla. Differences regarding taxes for war purposes cause dissension in Spain's cabinet.

May 26: The *Oregon* reaches Key West harbor in perfect order, after a trip of eighty-one days from Puget Sound. Discussion of the question of privateering in the Cortes is shut off by the Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs.

May 27: The prize court at Key West condemns four seized vessels and releases two. The President nominates twenty-eight brigadier-generals.

May 28: President McKinley reviews 12,000 troops at Falls Church, Va. Another list of army appointments is made.

May 29: Commodore Schley, of the flying squadron, reports that he has seen ships of the Cape Verde fleet in Santiago harbor which he is now blocking.

May 30: Troops are embarked from Tampa for an invasion of Cuba. Maj.-Gen. Wesley Merritt assumes formal command of the expedition to the Philippines.

LETTERS AND ART.

POSITION OF GREEK LITERATURE TO-DAY.

IS Greece as decadent in letters as it is thought that the disastrous war with Turkey proved her to be politically? Has her artistic culture been crushed out, so that the Greece of to-day has no resemblance to the ancient mistress of the fine arts? These questions are answered by a writer in the May *Cosmopolis*, Lewis Sargeant, who, in an examination of contemporary Greek literature, finds "highly satisfactory proof of continued vitality in the literary development" of the country. Greece, he says, displays a spirit of enterprise, emulation, and familiarity with the ideas and models of the present day, and she is doing original work besides.

The first question that arises is what the language of literary Greece is, and on this point the writer says:

"The ancient Greek language, highly organized and literary, has had a continuous and unbroken existence among the same race of men and in the same quarter of the world, so that the Athenian of to-day who writes in a Hellenistic or Greco-Latin style is, at the worst, regarded by his contemporaries as being a trifle pedantic. He would certainly not be unintelligible to the man in the crowd, as a Roman would be if he spoke Latin in the Piazza del Popolo. A modern Greek, possessing a fair measure of personal culture, grows up under the direct influence of the Attic literary models. They are his own patrimony; they are written in his mother-tongue, and that the tongue of a mother who has but added to her dignity and beauty as she added to her years."

Side by side with this survival of the classic Greek we find a vernacular aspiring, and with success, to become literary. Greece has, therefore, a dual written language, each producing literature at the present day. Which is to be the more prolific in the future, it is very difficult to say.

History, philosophy, and the graver subjects in general are written in classical Attic prose, but verse, drama, criticism, novels, and journalism are written in the language of the multitude. The ideas of to-day, intended for the general reader, are expressed in the language of to-day. Bearing this in mind, the writer proceeds to give an account of what the Greeks read:

"Lyrical poetry, as we should naturally expect, is found in greater abundance than any of the graver kinds, and no one who has not been at some pains to make himself acquainted with the literary output of the country would be prepared to find so considerable and varied a store of lyrical wealth. This wealth of song is especially notable among the products of the Athenian press during the past eight or nine decades. I have before me a little anthology printed in 1872, which contains about two hundred and fifty selected songs, from the patriotic appeals and klephtic songs of the revolutionary age to the love ditties, bacchanalia, peans, and lamentations, rural and occasional pieces, of subsequent periods. Some examples of these, as well as of the lyrics of the last five and twenty years, were included in a recent volume on 'Greece in the Nineteenth Century,' together with a brief mention of the principal contemporary writers of Greece. Perhaps that fact may absolve me from the necessity of repeating the same details in other words.

"Greeks, like the rest of us, read their newspapers and fiction before anything. That is to say, newspapers and stories are printed in greater number than productions of a more serious kind, and are read by ten or twenty times as many readers. The majority of Greek stories are short, romantic, and unmedicated. They turn on the human affections, on domestic life, on the sex-theorems, if I may say so, rather than the sex-problems of humanity. Of course there are longer romances, like those of Bikelas, Drosines, and others; and their readers will bear witness that, tho their interest is often intense, they are concerned rather with demonstrations of the old truths of human comedy and tragedy than with any more or less ingenious devices for the readjustment of social relationships. But, translations apart, perhaps the short

story is most in favor with Athenian readers. Xenopoulos, Palamas, Polemes, Axiotes, Ephtaliotes, Kanellopoulos, and Lukouides are among the most successful of contemporary novelists."

The play is very popular in Greece. The more serious drama is not lacking, but the number of light comedies and farces is very considerable. The chief dramatists are Koramelas, Laskares, and Kastelopoulos. In the domains of history, philology, and archeology much work is being done. Finally, the writer says that most of the great English, German, French, and Italian authors have been translated, and Dante, Goethe, Shakespeare, Hugo, and Molière are very popular in Greece.

PERSONAL CHARACTER OF JAMES PAYN.

FOR an author who has written so much and maintained a considerable degree of popularity for so long a time, the late James Payn has received surprisingly little attention since his death a few weeks ago (March 25). The number of his volumes (mostly novels) was over one hundred, and the period of



JAMES PAYN.

his literary activity covered forty-six years. He was editor of *Chambers's Journal* from 1838 to 1872, and became editor of *The Cornhill Magazine* in 1882. The novel that first spread his fame widely was "Lost Sir Massingberd," which, running as a serial in *Chambers's Journal*, added 20,000 to its circulation.

An intimate sketch of Payn appears in the London *Athenæum* signed "R. J. S.," from which we quote as follows:

"Of James Payn, if of any man, it may be said with truth that he never made an enemy. His only enemy was the arthritic gout which laid him low. There was a letter which came to him from Robert Louis Stevenson in Samoa on the day that the writer's death became known by telegraph in London—a letter that, on the face of it, was written by a man in health to cheer an invalid—which gave best expression to the courage with which Payn faced his foe. There ought, said Stevenson—I quote his words from memory—to be an Order of Merit for men of letters. Scott would have had it, without question, and 'James Payn would be a Knight Commander.' One went to sit by his invalid chair in these later years, generally by the fireside—rarely, on a hot August day, in the garden—and one was told outside that he was

very suffering and depressed. But in a minute or two, thanks to no merit of the visitor, but simply through the indomitable cheeriness and courage of the invalid, the place would be full of laughter, and suffering would for a little be forgotten. One hardly liked to ask him of his troubles, but one could not ignore them if one would; and the answer always was, 'My poor hands and my poor knees, they are never out of pain.' But at least the suffering showed him, as day after day and week after week for the last five years he sat in his chair at home, how rich he was in the affection of his friends. No one who had once known James Payn could ever forget him. No one of his companions at whist—when he could not even deal the cards himself, and it was a wonder how he contrived to hold his hand—could forget the Tuesday or the Friday at Warrington Crescent. He inspired friendship, and repaid it a hundredfold. He might have written those little-known lines:

Friends are in life's exchange the sterling coin,
True tender for the rarest forms of joy;
The only pauper is the friendless man.

His friends were drawn from every walk of life. Men of law and men of letters, divines and politicians, friends of Eton and Cambridge days, journalists and publicists, friends from the Reform Club and Sisters of Mercy, all alike were made to feel heartily welcome by that cheery greeting and that friendly talk, full of humor and fancy, full of anecdote, unconsciously full of pathos. One left his side feeling that it was good for one to have been there, to have witnessed that quiet heroism, that forgetfulness of self. If he could not be strong, at least he could be of good courage.

"No one will ever know how many men and women James Payn befriended during his long career. It would be hard to find any he ever harmed by word or deed. Many books have been dedicated to him; many more might have been. It is a simple thing enough now, but it was another thing then, to recognize the merit of 'Vice Versâ,' a 'White Company,' or a 'With Edged Tools' when it was in manuscript. Without his encouragement and guidance many books would not have been written, and many men would not have been writers of books. 'Without him I should never have written a serious work,' was said by a writer now well known. 'I think of him every day of my life,' said another equally famous. There was never in his heart the smallest jealousy of the younger man's success. He spoke as one who knew the craft from beginning to end. Novels he had written almost from his teens, and how much else that is fugitive in verse as well as in prose? When he could encourage he would. When he could not but discourage he refrained. He would not review a book of which he cordially disapproved. To a young writer he would show the little tricks of his craft. How necessary it is to have a plot clearly arranged before one puts pen to paper; how essential is the dramatic interest of a story; how English readers prefer the scene to be laid at home—these and many like hints came from a rich experience. The thought that 'James Payn says I can write a novel' has inspired many a pen.

"There was no stronger proof of his humility of mind than his enjoyment of a story against himself. Only the last time that I saw him he told me how a relative had found in a collector's shop a letter written years ago by a young man in strong depreciation of the poets, one and all, of the day, explaining their errors and pointing out, as only a very young man can, how they should have written; Wordsworth, Coleridge, Southey, and all were far from being real poets. And the writer of the letter which was exposed for sale as an autograph was, to his infinite delight, James Payn, who had completely forgotten the writing. He was a link, too, with the past. He had known Miss Mitford and Harriet Martineau, Landor and Leigh Hunt, Dickens and Thackeray, and he knew in an equal intimacy almost every writer who is now known to fame. But with the fleeting fashions of the day, with the sex problem and the ambiguous novel, he would have nothing to do. His sympathy was for whatever is pure and of good report. With all that he was a man of infinite jest and buoyant humor. What could be a better motto for a sundial than his 'Light Come, Light Go'? And now much light has with him gone out of many lives. Standing by his grave, all one can do is to lay a little leaf beside the many which are strewn there, and to remember how, in the most pathetic passage he ever wrote, it was clearly evident that he no longer feared the Shadow feared of man."

ALPHONSE DAUDET DESCRIBED BY HIS SON.

THIRD ARTICLE.

"I COMPLIMENTED my father, one day," continues Leon Daudet, in the third and concluding article of his series on his father (*Revue de Paris*, April 15), "on having trained his imagination to the end that he was able to keep it within definite barriers."

"Certainly," he replied; "I have always made truth and probability my limitations. I know the nebulous domain—those strange countries into which fantasy carries the greatest poets. But a novelist should not permit himself the mental excitements of a lyrist. Besides, I hold above everything to emotion, and emotion soon ceases when we go beyond human proportions."

Accuracy, precision, he considered of the utmost importance:

"It may be a minor quality, but there is no sincerity without it. It is this alone that causes that slight shiver from head to foot that the reader sometimes experiences. It exacts, moreover, hard sacrifices. What noble discourses, what brilliant episodes, it has fallen to me to cut out remorselessly, so as to remain within measure. The gift of harmony is of greater value than the application of no matter what principle. We moderns, through the complicity of our emotions, have lost somewhat, it would seem, the clear and limpid view of the ancients; we have no longer their realization of a sober and perfect art."

"In my youth," he declared, "writers were not troubled about money; we had not acquired the appetite for large profits. This is a contemporaneous scourge. We had no ambition for the enormous circulation and tumult that are now considered proofs of success. The success at which we aimed was rather the appreciation of some five or six venerated and beloved brothers of the craft; far more to the purpose than the idle acclamations of the ignorant multitude."

This was a subject to which he frequently recurred. It gave him pleasure to dwell upon that former spirit of sympathy and admiration:

"For that generation of writers, Flaubert's afternoons remain the most brilliant, the most precious recollection. 'Bah! we will never any of us come up to him!' Émile Zola would say, in a melancholy tone. But regrets were forgotten when the *good thunder* of our discussions began to roll. What an uproar! What a hurtling of ideas and words, casting light in all directions! Turgenev, silent and reserved, never left his corner. We all of us esteemed him, but he kept his opinions to himself. What they were we did not know until after his death, and they had saddened him. Maupassant, at that time awkward and timid, was also one of the company; his first essays had been praised by Flaubert. For these days we kept what was best of ourselves. 'I will relate that, I will read this page, and take their advice,' so we thought. There was no servility, no time-serving among us. The younger caught a reflection from the glory of the elder, and profited by their example. We proved by our attitude that there is something in our craft besides money and vanity."

Daudet *filis* declares that he himself remembers many of these rare occasions, and adds: "Whatever the theme of discussion, romanticism, or naturalism, the utility or defects of the schools, it was a fine literary tone that united in the same enthusiasms Gustave Flaubert, Ivan Turgenev, Émile Zola, Edmond de Goncourt, Alphonse Daudet, Guy de Maupassant, Gustave Toudouse, and some others." After the death of Flaubert, these gatherings were discontinued. Finally, it was determined to reorganize them, and the initiatory "Balzac dinner" took place, at which Alphonse Daudet was the most conspicuous figure. All the fine traditions of the past were renewed. Daudet was in his happiest vein. "These *Agapes* are indispensable," he exclaimed, on taking his departure with his son. "They quicken the spirit, they embellish it. Through the exchange of ideas, our brains are impressed, the one by the other. We see the same fact, the same

episode, appreciated by different personalities, according to their character and habits, in many ways."

The very next week, through a mournful coincidence, Daudet himself was called to follow his illustrious predecessor.

There is only one road to happiness, according to the deceased novelist, and that is *justice*. "Here," his son declares, "I am nearest the heart of him whom I have undertaken to portray. His sense of justice was the strongest and most certain stimulant of my father's talent, and if it be true that moral qualities impregnate even the manner, I may add, without fear of error, that his style was that of justice."

Continuing, the narrator describes, with his usual vivid touch, the admirable gentleness and patience with which Daudet played the part of arbiter in all their family debates and dissensions, and seeks to fathom the secret of his extraordinary power over others. He writes:

"I have endeavored to account for his ability immediately to control a young man like myself, naturally violent and obstinate. Two causes, I find, contributed to the effect produced: the one instinctive, the other moral. First, there was the mere sound of his voice, more bewitching than any one can imagine. It had so many and such sweet inflections that it seemed as tho several persons, all of them dear, were addressing you in turn, each with his own peculiar accent. Second, his influence was due to a singleness of mind that enabled him to enter into the views of him whom he wished to persuade; blend with his nature, and lead him aright along the very road where he had been wandering astray. It is this quality that constitutes the romance writer—the creator of types. At the base of genius there is always seduction."

Alphonse Daudet had made a profound study of vanity, and held that it was destructive to the sense of justice. It weakened the conscience, and secretly undermined all noble qualities. Carried to the last extreme, it induced actual cruelty, since the vain, the *moitrinaires*, as he called them, do not fail, in due time, to rejoice in the sufferings of others. Daudet *filis* tells the following anecdote, which illustrates not merely his father's opinions, but also his terrible sarcasm, when he, habitually so gentle and considerate, chose to make use of it:

"We were talking one day on this very subject, when an acquaintance whom my father regarded as a finished type of the *moitrinaires* was seen approaching the house. 'Stay where you are,' he said; 'we will send him off; and if this is one of his good days, we may look for something remarkable; one of those involuntary utterances of the dominant passion such as Balzac would find in his dramatic moments.' The boaster was announced, and, true enough, before sitting down he began to entertain us with a long account of his last 'success,' vaunting his family and himself and dilating upon the differences between his own condition and that of Daudet, an unhappy invalid, tied to his armchair, unable to take the exercise so requisite for mental activity, etc. 'It is really distressing,' he continued, 'to be brought to realize your own health by the sad spectacle of a sick friend.'

"Here my father interrupted him, declaring that he had never been so well. 'My gaiety has returned, I smoke my pipe, a capital sign, and work with astonishing facility. Soon I shall be going to Champrosy, and there, in the verdure and sunshine, it is certain that I shall finish my book before two months.'

"The visitor made a grimace, and in the most natural manner in the world, without a change of countenance, Daudet related the following:

"A rat, very consequential, envious in fact, went to pay a call on another rat, who had just poisoned himself. The unfortunate was writhing with colic in his magnificent domain; the visitor was convulsed by still more cruel pangs caused by his despair at the sight of all his companion's splendor. 'You look yellow?' 'Me? No, it is nothing; one is so well off here! But you yourself?' 'Oh, me? I am marvelously well, I assure you.' They expired, seated opposite each other; and the envious one died the first."

"It was curious to watch the face of our guest, during this recital. He did not half understand, but he was very much put out, and soon took his departure. When he had gone, my father

laughed merrily. 'The dear fellow wants me dead, and out of the way,' he cried. 'His usual greeting is, "*What, you are still working!*" It is easy to perceive that in him the *me* is the veritable master. There is no question that he is pleased and delighted at the misfortunes of others. The sight of their discomfort and misery accentuates his pleasure in his own well-being."

Loving justice no less than he hated vanity and affectation, Alphonse Daudet had, for the most part, we are told, but little sympathy with the statesmen and politicians who have been at his country's helm during the last two decades. "Poor France," he exclaimed, "when I have approached these men, with but few exceptions, I have been stupefied by their worthlessness, their prodigious littlenesses. Ah, if we were represented by our national representatives alone, we should be in a deplorable state."

There was a class who always aroused his animosity in the highest degree—those who make a point of decrying every noble enterprise and lofty ideal, while they are equally bent upon extolling their own petty exploits. The novelist was a dangerous opponent, and, in his encounter with persons of this stamp, he left them invariably covered with confusion and ridicule.

Daudet had a keen sense of humor, and considered this indispensable to happiness. Irony, he said, is the salt of existence. It enables us to tolerate beautiful sentiments which without it would be *too beautiful*.

Leon Daudet sums up his father's opinions on that great human problem, *the search for happiness*. A few brief extracts must suffice to indicate their character:

"There can be no happiness without clear notions of right and justice. One of the moral levers of the world is this axiom: *Everything must be paid for*. The apparent deviations of justice, even when excessive and prolonged, are merely a defect of our observation. There is a science of justice that is not the code; a dynamic of justice that is merely the search for a perpetual moral equilibrium. The *instinct* of justice is of equal value with the science. Natures rude and gross may have within vivid and pure gleams of divine light. This Christianity perceived. Grief and pity are precious auxiliaries of justice, so long as they do not become excessive, so long as justice remains at the center. The search for happiness should always be applied to others, not to oneself. Man ought not to evade any moral or social responsibility. He who has the gift and taste for observation or imagination has a grander capacity for happiness than others. The continued exercise of the spirit, giving nimbleness to ideas, is a cause of happiness, while work for work's sake is merely a means of escaping from life. Egotism is a cause of unhappiness. A special place in the search for happiness should be given to pardon and sacrifice."

According to his son, the highest interest of these reflections, culled from the novelist's note-books or gathered from his conversations, lies in the fact that he made them a rule of conduct, following his own precepts with a marvelous constancy.

Referring to his method of composition, the novelist is reported as follows:

"When I wish to exalt my brain it is to the spectacles of my youth that I recur. It is a habit of my mind to localize all my sentiments. The words love, felicity, faith, desire, do not dwell in me in the abstract state; they assume form, participate in episodes. Now, the light that envelops them is always that of my country. It is under the blue sky of Provence that I place these personified traits of heroism, of abnegation, of generosity. To enter into the state of trance, of inspiration, I need the sun from down yonder; and in intense suffering to represent to myself the long white roads so heated and glaring that they scorch, and render me desperate."

As he approaches the conclusion of his task, Leon Daudet writes as follows:

"The farther I proceed, the more impossible it seems to me to give my readers an adequate impression of the sincerity and serenity that one of my father's conversations left in the mind. Let it be remembered that for the exposition of his doctrines he

selected always the happiest moment, and the most beautiful place. Thanks to him, I have in my mind a succession of divine landscapes linked to marvelous moral dissertations; and he insisted, with reason, that this harmony between the within and without, the interior and internal domains, are of the highest importance in quickening the more ethereal emotions, and stimulating poetic creation."

SONG IN THE CAMP.

THE value of music as a stimulus of military ardor and an inspiration in time of fatigue was touched upon in an article in our issue of May 21. Its value as a solace to the soldier in camp is brought out by an *Evening Post* (New York) reporter, who writes an article descriptive of life in Camp Black, Hempstead, L. I., where a number of the New York State regiments were until a few days ago quartered preparatory to the journey South. We quote as follows:

"What a gentle influence singing has upon the soldier's hard life at Camp Black; how it lightens the labor of special duty, gives patience in times of waiting, keeps 'idle hands' from 'Satan's work' in hours of leisure, and smoothes inequalities of wealth and breeding into good comradeship—how much content, health, and order owe to it only one intimately familiar with the conditions of camp life can know. Every man sings when songs are going; he is a poor sort of a fellow who fails to join a rollicking chorus when 'tra-la-la' answers for the verse and bawling passes muster with flying colors for melody and harmony. No man says to his neighbor, 'Be quiet, you braying idiot; you're out of tune'; but it's 'Sing up, man; pass the bottle and sing louder.' And so men who a month ago would have blushed to raise their voices in song in an open field are welcomed in the tents where 'a song is on,' for the very fervor with which they wave their arms in time to the music, for the great noise they make, and for the fun of seeing the red faces their enthusiastic efforts give them. The man who knows a song or two, and can sing them, is the hero of his company, be his songs as old as they may; for singing is high above poker, drinking, talk, or reading—the four other great diversions—and a sweet voice in a man more admirable than strength, prowess, goodness of heart, or any other love-winning quality. All this seems reasonable enough to one who knows how a song relieves the dull routine of camp life—perhaps to none other.

"While each regiment has its own popular songs, some have taken hold of every regiment, are sung on the plains still, and have been carried South by the men who have gone. These are not the music-hall successes of to-day, but 'old, familiar' songs, revived and sung with all the fervor of their earlier days—'Marching Through Georgia,' 'Tenting on the Old Camp-ground,' 'John Brown's Body,' and other war-time favorites. New words have been made for some of them. They sing

Hurrah! Hurrah! we'll sound the jubilee,
Hurrah! Hurrah! for Cuba shall be free;
So we'll sing the chorus, boys, when we have crossed the sea,
As we go marching through Cuba,

instead of the well-known words; and many a parody, such as the following:

We'll hang General Weyler to a sour-apple tree;
We'll hang General Weyler, for Cuba shall be free;
We'll hang General Weyler, when we catch him. Wait and see.
Let his son! go down, down, down!

"College' songs that everybody knows are as popular as these—'Seeing Nellie Home,' 'My Old Kentucky Home,' 'Solomon Levi,' and the rest of them. Occasionally 'The Star-Spangled Banner' and 'My Country, 'Tis of Thee' are heard, but only at night, when the lights are about to be put out, or when the companies stand, in heavy marching order, in their bare quarters, waiting for the order to march away for good and all. Then, there are the 'Old Oaken Bucket,' 'Nearer, My God, to Thee,' and even 'Ella Rhee'—sung because they are known, and give the bass and tenor a chance to sing at the tops of their voices without the discouraging fear that they may be responsible for a distressing discord at any moment. What new songs they sing are usually of the 'My Mother Was a Lady' or 'The Banks of the Wabash' variety—the so-called sentimental ballads; or, may be

'Rosie O'Grady,' or a 'coon' song like 'Get Your Money's Worth.' 'The Soldier's Farewell' is universally sung; and some German and English drinking-songs have found favor with the up-state troops. This has more than a passing interest. The men have been in camp some length of time, and of the many songs, the few that have survived will not be forgotten; nor is it likely that others will be learned, for there will be no opportunity to hear new ones. During the term of service of these regiments, wherever they may go, the songs heard on Hempstead Plains will go with them; they will be sung long after the war is over, and will recall experiences and emotions that would be forgotten but for them, just as 'There's a Hole in the Bottom of the Sea' and 'Merrily We'll Roll Along' now bring back to the minds of college men a lecture-room and the face of an old professor."

A PROPOSED REVOLUTION IN EDUCATION.

ACCORDING to Mr. C. Hanford Henderson, our present system of education is better adapted to turning out dullards than geniuses. He would remedy it by the complete abolition of present methods in the lower grades, and the substitution of but five branches of instruction—gymnastic, music, manual training, free-hand drawing, and language, their importance varying in the order named. This startling proposition seems not irrational when viewed in the light of Mr. Henderson's reasoning. His argument, as set forth in *The Atlantic Monthly* (June) is founded on the individual man, his physical and emotional possibilities, and his relation to the present moment as distinguished from his relation to classical literature, historical persons and places, and the results of science. The child will become a genius under this new method, not by seeing how other geniuses have done, but by developing his own latent resources to the highest degree and depending upon their spontaneous action.

If asked to sum up his idea in a single line, Mr. Henderson says he finds its best expression in Walt Whitman's "Song of the Open Road," wherein he says:

"Henceforth I ask not good fortune. I, myself, am good fortune."

"In these few words," says Mr. Henderson, "you have the whole of the modern impulse—the denial of outside possession, conferment, preferment; the assertion of the individual man; the present moment." In the development of this thought, Mr. Henderson ransacks history and biography to show that the world's best men and best ages have been those least hampered by the schoolmasters. Lincoln, Shakespeare, Walt Whitman, Stevenson, Kipling, Darwin, Audubon, Agassiz, John Muir, and Faraday are some of the names he presents. The contrast between the spontaneous golden age of Pericles and the succeeding dark eras of scholasticism furnishes a strong argument. Other illustrations from daily life are brought in as confirmation. He says:

"I speak as warmly as I do because I rebel to see the tragedy of Esau reenacted on our modern stage; because I rebel to see boys and girls, men and women, selling their birthright for the cheap adornment of a formal education, for a bit of property, for a snug position, or for any other mess of pottage, however savory it may appear in a moment of conservatism and weakness, when I know that the real charm of life is the beautiful and accomplished organism, the inquiring mind, the undismayed heart."

Mr. Henderson outlines his sweeping reform as follows:

"For the present we may deal only with the lower schools. The modern impulse to life would reform these schools, not by patching them up, but by wholly reorganizing them; by abolishing entirely the present curriculum of formal study, and substituting a thoroughgoing system of bodily training,—a system carried out for the explicit purpose of furnishing an adequate tool for the full expression of the emotional and intellectual life. Such a system would include but five branches of instruction—gymnastic, music, manual training, free-hand drawing, and language. I am naming them in what I consider the order of their importance. I place language last, because I believe that expres-

sion in action is incomparably better than expression in words; that it is far better to help our brother man than to commend helpfulness, to be brave than to praise bravery, to paint a beautiful picture than to talk about art, to love than to write love sonnets; and also because I am quite sure that sound content will find suitable dress. The present wail over our deficient English composition is at bottom a wail over deficient thought. It is overwhelmingly difficult to say anything when you have nothing to say."

He comes thus to the defense of the five branches in the curriculum:

"I place gymnastic first—not athletics, but gymnastic—because it seems to me that good health and abounding vitality are the foundations of all other excellence. I believe with Dr. Johnson that sick men *are* rascals. Ill health is a form of serious immorality, and almost prolific source of social unhappiness and vice. But gymnastic has a larger mission even than good health. As an educational agent, it is to add to the body beauty and grace and usableness, to make it an admirable tool for the admirable purposes of the heart and mind.

"The same human motive makes me place music second; and by music I mean the artistic cultivation of the voice in both speech and song, as well as distinct musical training on some suitable instrument. What a tremendous contribution to the charm and success of life would be wrought by this simple innovation! We lose much through our harsh voices, in the gentle art of living. And then, too, music and song add so much to the joy of life. The sailor singing at the capstan, the negro singing in the cotton-fields, experience an uplifting of spirit that we cheat ourselves by not sharing.

"In the third branch, manual training, we have profitable occupation for as many hours a day as we will—occupation touched with sincerity and reality, and therefore morally acceptable. It is possible to make many beautiful and useful things and to cultivate a cunning hand. But meanwhile, and better even than this, while the children are gaining muscular dexterity they are also gaining an equal mental dexterity, and are coming into that best of all possessions, the possession of themselves. I value manual training so highly, not because I want to turn our boys into artisans and our girls into clever housewives, but because I want to turn them into men and women of large personal power.

"In free-hand drawing we have only another method of expressing the self, and one to be cultivated purely for this purpose, not, therefore, by giving the children set tasks, but by allowing them to express themselves in such drawings as they choose to make, helping them only in the method of representation and by limited suggestion.

"I come once more to the question of language, and I want again to call attention to the fact that in importance it stands at the end of the list. All the other branches, in the hands of cultivated teachers, would involve constant practise in expression, and the specific study of English might even be omitted. Where it is undertaken, however, it might profitably be limited to spoken English, and the classes in reading and writing might be made entirely voluntary, allowing the children to come to these arts in their own good time and as the result of their own impulse. If at fourteen they did not know how to read, it would be surprising, but not in the least alarming. Few children in educated families, if left to themselves, pass the age of eight without learning to read, and many learn at four. At the same time one other spoken language might be learned, for a perfect pronunciation can hardly be acquired later than fourteen. French has the advantage of being still the language of art and of the world, and of being a great practical help in the formation of a clear and beautiful English style."

Two questions remain: What would be the program after this novel course in the lower school? and what would be the result as regards children whose schooling ceases at fourteen or thereabouts?

"We should be sending up the most excellent material to the high school, were we to carry out such a scheme of organic culture, and in four years the children would be amply qualified for college. I speak so confidently because it is a matter of experience. In my own case school life covered only two years in all, and of this only five months were given to direct preparatory work. The requirements are more exacting now, but, with such

splendid bodily equipment as these children would have, surely the work could be well accomplished in four years.

"One may feel disposed to ask, however, What of the children who do not go to college, or do not even go to the high school? It requires, I think, no great boldness to maintain that even for them, perhaps especially for them, this scheme of organic training would still be the best; for it has as its goal personal power and accomplishment and goodness and beauty, and these qualities count vastly more, in the practical conduct of life, than the entire content of the present lower-school formalism. And so I commend the scheme to Jack and to Margaret, whether they go to school many years or few."

Mr. Henderson's essay bears the stamp of long deliberation and deep earnestness. He hints in the early part of the essay at "a scattered handful of men and women, a saving minority, weak in numbers, but strong in destiny," who hold the same views, and with whom rests "the cause of humanity," so that the new theory takes on almost the character of a new religion. It will be interesting to note how the professional educators will receive it.

English and American Humor.—Even in the matter of wit and humor, American preeminence over Great Britain is stoutly denied by an English correspondent—not named—who is quoted in *The Chap-Book* (Chicago, May 1). We excel in this and in many other things in quantity, but not in quality, so it is charged:

"It seems to me that the grand difference between the American and English humorous journals is the difference that underlies all the relations between the two countries—the difference between quantity and quality. In America there are more politicians but fewer statesmen; more education, but less scholarship; more good writing, but less literature; more luxury, but less style. In almost everything the American average seems higher than the English average, and the American best lower than the English best. The case of humor is not an exception. America is as early the purveyor of humor to the nineteenth century, as France was to the eighteenth. In no country is the average man so quick to see the ridiculous side of anything. The talent is so universal that it leads men to jest on the oddest subjects. Every one knows that the North burst into merriment over the defeat of its soldiers at Bull Run, while as for Boss Tweed, it was only with an immense effort that New York could stop laughing long enough to be angry. And only the other day I saw at least half a dozen jokes on the loss of the *Maine*—but another instance of the American's

'acrid Asiatic mirth
That leaves him careless 'mid his dead,
The scandal of the elder earth.'

No words are wanted to prove the range of America's humor, or its immense diffusion. What is questioned is its quality. And here the rule I have applied to American and English education and politics seems to step in again. The rule is, that the common possession and enjoyment of every advantage does not make for excellence in any special branch. The average intellect becomes the dominating factor. Where everybody is educated up to a certain level, the tendency is for nobody to rise above that level. Some may, but the majority do not. Where everybody is a humorist, the odds are that nobody is a wit. The mere force of numbers holds back the elect few. On the hypothesis, therefore, we should expect to find that America is not prolific of humor of the best kind. And this is just what we do find. America has produced one wit of the first water—James Russell Lowell—and then a thousand humorists of the Bangs, Bill Nye, and Peck type. Against them set the English products of the century, Thackeray, Dickens, Carlyle, Peacock, Newman, Arnold, and such minor lights as Calverley, Bagehot, Anstey, Austin Dobson, Burnand, Owen Seaman, and the brothers Smith. There is hardly any comparison between the quality of the wit in the two countries."

THE committee of selection for the French Salon has no easy task. A Paris correspondent of a London paper makes the following interesting estimate: "It is reckoned that there have been at least 10,000 works submitted to the jury—about 7,000 paintings, 1,500 drawings and water-colors, 500 engravings, 500 architectural plans, without counting the sculpture, etc. When one considers that there were but 1,776 pictures and 857 divers works admitted last year, one wonders at the hope which springs eternal in the artist's breast."

SCIENCE AND INVENTION.

THE NEW AMBULANCE-SHIP.

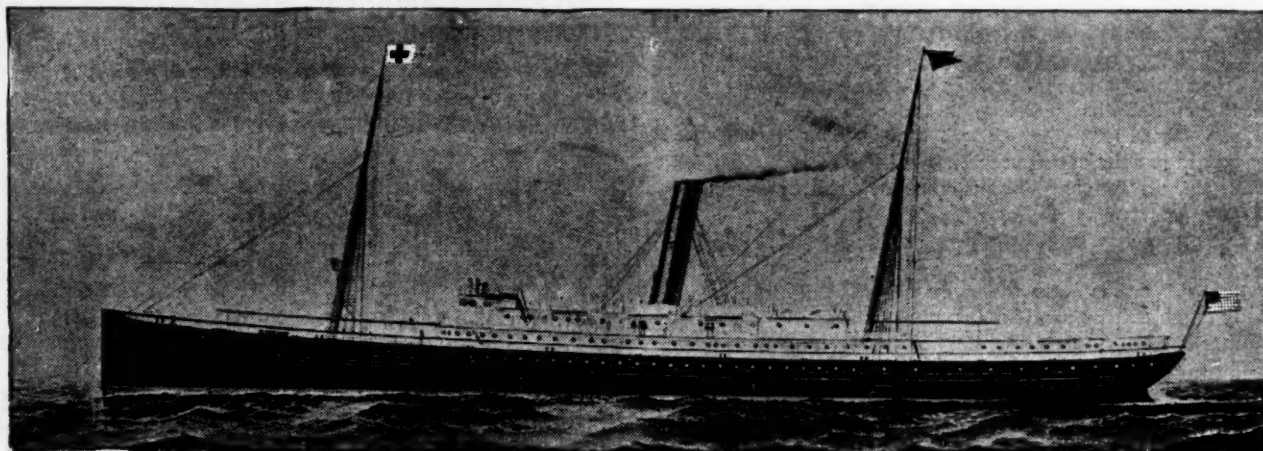
THE ambulance-ship *Solace*, which has just been fitted out by the medical department of our navy for use in the hostilities with Spain, is a new departure in naval warfare. She has been called by some a "hospital-ship," but she is intended only to care for the wounded while she is transporting them to the nearest land hospital, and so she is more properly a huge floating ambulance. We quote below portions of a description of the ship contributed to *The Medical Record* (New York, May 14) by one of her medical staff, Dr. E. S. Bogert, United States navy. Says Dr. Bogert:

"With the constantly increasing destructive power of ships-of-war have come structural changes such that the proper treatment of the wounded on board a modern battle-ship is wellnigh impos-

sible. Aft these is the main ward. Here are bunks, accessible on all sides, for ninety-two patients. This ward is well ventilated by numerous air ports and a large hatch, and is well lighted. In addition to the natural ventilation are louvers and ducts connecting with blowers which have a capacity sufficient to insure at all times a plentiful renewal of air. . . . This ward is connected directly with the operating-room above by an elevator capable of carrying a cot or wheeled stretcher."

Among the other features of this unique vessel, as described by Dr. Bogert, are a large saloon with staterooms for convalescent officers, cold-storage rooms, ice-machines and ice-houses, a steam laundry, and an emergency ward, containing fifty swinging cots. The large operating-room, on the upper deck forward, is particularly worthy of notice. To quote again:

"It is fitted with two operating-tables of the regulation navy pattern, and all modern appliances for aseptic surgery. The instruments are of the latest and most approved patterns and of the best construction. The deck is covered with interlocking rubber tiles, which are capable of thorough cleansing, and afford



THE UNITED STATES AMBULANCE SHIP "SOLACE."

Courtesy of the *Medical Record*.

sible. When a ship-of-war nowadays goes into action, she is divided into many compartments by the closing of water-tight doors and the screwing down of battle-hatches. These compartments are practically closed cells, and communication between the different parts of the ship is always difficult and often roundabout. For this reason the transportation of the wounded from certain parts of the ship to any central dressing-station is impossible. Again, with the crew of the vessel necessarily divided into small squads in separate non-communicating compartments, men can not be spared from the guns for transporting wounded. These and other minor conditions, insurmountable without lessening the fighting efficiency of the vessel, render the surgical treatment of the wounded on board a ship-of-war during an action very difficult. The surgeons must themselves move about the ship, rendering aid wherever they may; and this aid must necessarily be limited to checking hemorrhage, the application of temporary dressings, and perhaps some treatment of shock.

"It was with a full understanding of these conditions that Surgeon-General Van Reyden, as soon as hostilities with Spain became probable, sought authority to fit out an ambulance-ship. He was heartily supported by the President and the Secretary of the Navy, and, after much thought and work, the *Solace* is the result.

"The *Solace* is a new steel vessel of 3,800 tons displacement, is 375 feet long, and has a speed of from 14 to 17 knots per hour. She has a single screw driven by triple expansion engines, and is extremely economical in coal consumption. She has bunker space for 850 tons of coal, and abundant stowage room for more in case of necessity, and thus has a large steaming-radius. Her holds and lower decks are given up to the stowage of ship-stores and provisions, with the exception of the forward upper cargo deck, on which we find a large steam sterilizer and storerooms for medical and surgical supplies.

"On the main deck forward are quarters for the crew of the vessel, the anchor engine, and the blowers for artificial ventila-

tion. Aft these is the main ward. Here are bunks, accessible on all sides, for ninety-two patients. This ward is well ventilated by numerous air ports and a large hatch, and is well lighted. In addition to the natural ventilation are louvers and ducts connecting with blowers which have a capacity sufficient to insure at all times a plentiful renewal of air. . . . This ward is connected directly with the operating-room above by an elevator capable of carrying a cot or wheeled stretcher."

"Adjoining the operating-room are the surgeons' sterilizing and wash-room and the dispensary. In the latter, besides the usual fittings, is the central telephone-station, with connections to the wards and sick-quarters and to the staterooms of each of the surgeons. . . . In the after-deck house is a saloon, connecting with the emergency ward below, for convalescent enlisted men. . . .

"Beside a large distilling-plant, the *Solace* has tanks for fresh water of a capacity of over twenty-seven thousand gallons. On the forward upper deck the *Solace* carries two steam launches, which can be fitted with platform decks on which the injured in cots or in hammocks may be lowered.

"In conformity with the additional articles of the Geneva convention, the *Solace*, as well as each of her steam launches, is painted white with a broad green stripe. She flies the Geneva cross at the fore, and thus her peaceful character should be always apparent.

"The *personnel* of the surgeon's division of the *Solace* includes at present four surgeons of the navy, three apothecaries, eight nurses, four mess attendants for the sick, and one cook for the sick. She carries, in addition, a captain, executive officer, three watch officers, and a paymaster—all of the navy—and a crew of sixty men. The nurses are male nurses and are all graduates of the Bellevue Hospital Training-School.

"The *Solace* is expected to remain near the fleet while in action, and as soon as any ship withdraws, or at the close of the engagement, she will take all the wounded on board and steam away for a naval hospital, thus fulfilling distinctly the duties of an ambulance-ship and not those of a hospital-ship. The injured will be lowered from the battle-ships either into the *Solace's* steam launches or into barges towed by the launches, or will be landed directly on the *Solace's* deck by a trolley sort of litter,

which will run on a cable stretched from the battle-ship to the ambulance-ship. The wounded having been received on board of the ambulance-ship, those requiring immediate operation will be placed on the tables at once and sent down to the wards later, thus involving the least possible handling; those that do not require operative treatment will be sent at once to the wards.

"This is the first time that this humane project has ever been attempted, and if the ship enacts the part for which she has been designed, her surgeons will be the first to have the opportunity to practise aseptic field military surgery. That the United States should be the first nation to adopt such a humane adjunct to naval warfare, all the country should be proud of. That the vessel is the product of the brains and energy of American surgeons, should cause a widespread interest in the vessel's work by the entire medical profession of the United States. That the navy of the United States should be the first to suggest and to put into execution this project, our navy in general, and the naval medical corps in particular, may take pride in. Honor to the President and to the Secretary of the Navy, who authorized the expenditure of public funds for such a purpose, and honor to the surgeon-general of the navy, who by his tireless energy has brought this project to a successful completion."

RECENT STUDY OF VITAL PHENOMENA.

A NUMBER of recent books bearing on life and its phenomena are reviewed in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (May 1) by M. A. Dastre. The author takes up especially the bearing of the doctrine of energy—the keystone of modern physics—on physiological theory, and emphasizes a tendency toward a partial return to the old idea, once discarded entirely, of a special vital principle. Recent researches seem to show that while vital processes are as rigidly subject to the laws of energy as are any of the processes of outside nature, there probably exist in living organisms special "vital" forms of energy not yet discovered elsewhere. Says M. Dastre:

"The living world, like the inanimate, shows us nothing else than alterations of material and transformations of energy. . . . In the physical world, the specific forms of energy are not numerous. When we have named the mechanical energies, chemical energy, the radiant energies, and electric and magnetic energies, we have exhausted the list of the actors that occupy the world's stage, at least those that we know about.

"Can we assert, then, that the list is closed, and that science will never discover other forms or other specific varieties of energy? No, surely. Such an affirmation would be as ambitious as it is imprudent. The history of the physical sciences should render us more circumspect. It teaches us that it is barely a century since electric energy made its entry on the scene. This discovery in the world of energy, made, so to speak, under our eyes, leaves the gate open in the future for other surprises.

"This reserve is of high importance from the point of view of the reference of vital phenomena to universal energy. It enables us to assert that, besides the forms of energy that we know that living beings possess in common with the physical world, there exist in them forms of energy that appear peculiar to themselves. These are yet too imperfectly known for us to be able to seek them elsewhere. They exist also doubtless in the physical world, and they will be found there when our means of investigation have made sufficient progress. In the present state of things, we need admit this possibility only in view of the particularity of the phenomena of life and of animality, which are the most specialized and the most heterogeneous of physical phenomena. Thanks to this precaution we understand at once by what essential characteristics vital phenomena belong to universal physics and by what differences they yet remain separated. We shall thus escape the accusation of gross materialism."

Carrying out his plan, the author first examines the kinds of known physical energy possessed by the living organism: these are the same—chemical, thermic, mechanical, etc.—that have already been mentioned. The transformations of these have been the study of a whole modern school of physiologists, some of whom have seen in these transformations the whole of vital phe-

nomena. With them life was but the absorption of known forms of energy from the outer world and their mutual transformation, storage, and use either within the body or in effecting some outside work. But recently they have been obliged to acknowledge that other forms exist, and these next occupy M. Dastre's attention. They have been called, rather vaguely he thinks, "vital energies." He says of them:

"The vital energies are the phenomena that take place in the tissues during their activity, without being actually identifiable with the known types of physical, chemical, or mechanical phenomena; they are often silent and invisible actions that we recognize only by their effects, after they have been transformed into the familiar forms; they are what takes place, for instance, in the muscle during the preparation for its contraction, in the nerve that conducts the nervous current, in the secreting gland. We give these the provisional name of vital properties, of energies properly called vital, of living energy, or, as M. Chauveau says, of physiological work. And it is this that we should hereafter regard as interchangeable by equivalence with the energies of the physical world, as they themselves are mutually interchangeable."

This interchangeability is a consequence of the first law of energy, namely, that it is indestructible. The second law (that energy tends, through equalization, to become less and less available) shows us, M. Dastre thinks, that just as in the physical universe energy tends to fall into the form of low-temperature heat and thus become unavailable, so heat is a mere excretion in the animal body; it is not transformed into work in the organism as in a steam-engine, tho some writers have taken this view, but it is merely the form in which the waste energy of the organism is dissipated.

In closing, M. Dastre points out that the laws of animal physiology, looked at from the standpoint of energy, are nothing but the laws of nourishment, for food is the chief source of animal energy, and life is but the history of the transformation of that energy. Hence the importance in biology of a close study of foods, which is now being undertaken by numerous investigators.

—Translated for THE LITERARY DIGEST.

CHANGES IN THE FORM AND SIZE OF THE HEART.

POPULAR expressions show that it has always been believed that the heart changes its size under the influence of emotion, and even alters its position. When we say "his heart was in his throat," we exaggerate somewhat, no doubt, but modern science shows that we are not altogether wrong, for the heart certainly does change place and form and size under changing conditions; in fact it seems to be doing so nearly all the time. We translate below portions of an article contributed to *La Nature* (Paris, May 14) by Dr. Capitan, describing the most recent methods of investigation on this subject, and some of their results. Says Dr. Capitan:

"It is not long since it was first shown by direct observation that the heart easily changes its shape. Several German authors . . . about ten years ago . . . were able, by means of percussion, to show that the heart readily alters its form, its position, and even its dimensions, under a series of various influences acting on the nervous system. These changes are the more marked as the subject is more nervous.

"But these authors had at their disposal only the method of percussion, a process consisting of tapping with the fingers of the right hand the back of the left index finger pressed on the skin at the point to be examined. The difference in the sounds thus obtained serves to locate the organs lying immediately beneath.

"For this primitive process we have now substituted the use of Capitan and Verdin's stethoscope, employing Bianchi's method of 'phonendoscopy.' . . .

"In almost everybody the form of the heart is thus found to vary very easily under divers functional or pathologic influences

—after an effort such as running, or after a meal, or even if the subject experiences an emotion or is exposed to a sudden chill (as in a cold shower-bath). Numerous influences predispose the subject to this special sensibility of the cardiac nerves, such as anemia, certain conditions of nervousness, a general illness, whether acute or chronic (for instance, tuberculosis or typhoid fever) or even a simple diathetic state such as rheumatism or a chronic poisoning like alcoholism. We see thus that there are very few persons that have hearts of unvarying form. They are very rare, and in very good health, vigorous and having few emotions.

"The examination for variation of the heart is carried on as follows: The subject being placed in an upright position, the contour of his heart is ascertained by the general methods of phonendoscopy. This consists of pressing the button of the stethoscope in the middle of the region just over the heart and tapping the skin while moving the instrument away from this point.

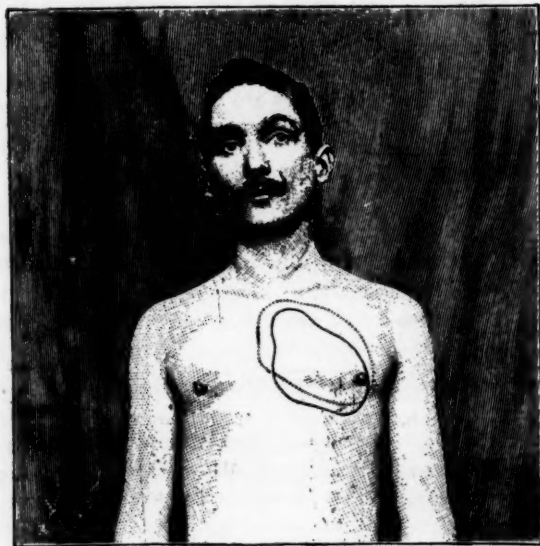


FIG. 1.—CHANGE OF FORM AND DISPLACEMENT OF THE HEART AFTER A RUN.

Full line shows the form before, and the dotted line after, running.

When, by means of the rubber tubes that connect the apparatus with the ears, the noise of the tapping is no longer perceived, the limit of the organ has been reached. A pencil-mark is made at this point. By thus fixing a series of points it is easy to obtain a line indicating the form of the heart. This outline is shown on Fig. 1 by a full line.

"The subject is then caused to execute motions more or less violent, or is made to run about for several minutes. Then, by the same process as before, a line is drawn indicating the new position of the heart (indicated on the figure by the dotted line). Then if the subject be photographed, or, more simply, if we take a tracing of the two outlines, we shall have a series of figures that can be directly compared.

"Thus we show, as seen in the figure, that the form of the heart has been changed or that it has been displaced (in this case raised). But these alterations of position can be made in various senses. The heart may also either increase or decrease in volume. . . .

"In one group of cases we may place the hearts that rise under the influence of an effort, as shown in Fig. 1. In this case, the heart also swells up a little. This takes place with a nervous subject. Fig. 2 (2) shows the heart of a hysterical dyspeptic person. We see that after exertion it is noticeably lowered. It has also contracted.

"Fig. 2 (3 and 4) show two hearts of which the former has moved toward the outer part of the thorax and the other inward. The first is that of a woman addicted to alcohol and the second that of a nervous medical student.

"Finally, Fig. 2 (5 and 6) show other types of modification in form. In the former the heart has expanded and in the second it has contracted. These belong respectively to a nervous young woman with tuberculosis and to another woman, also nervous.

"These variations in the form and volume of the heart are not characteristic of clinical types. If we examine certain subjects at different times, we can show that under the same influence—effort,

for example—their hearts do not act in the same fashion; sometimes it expands, sometimes contracts.

"To what do these modifications in the form of the heart correspond? They are probably due to the fact that the heart, obliged to do, for the moment, an unusual amount of work, sometimes contracts to an unusual degree (and thus diminishes in volume); sometimes, being powerless to react, it becomes distended by

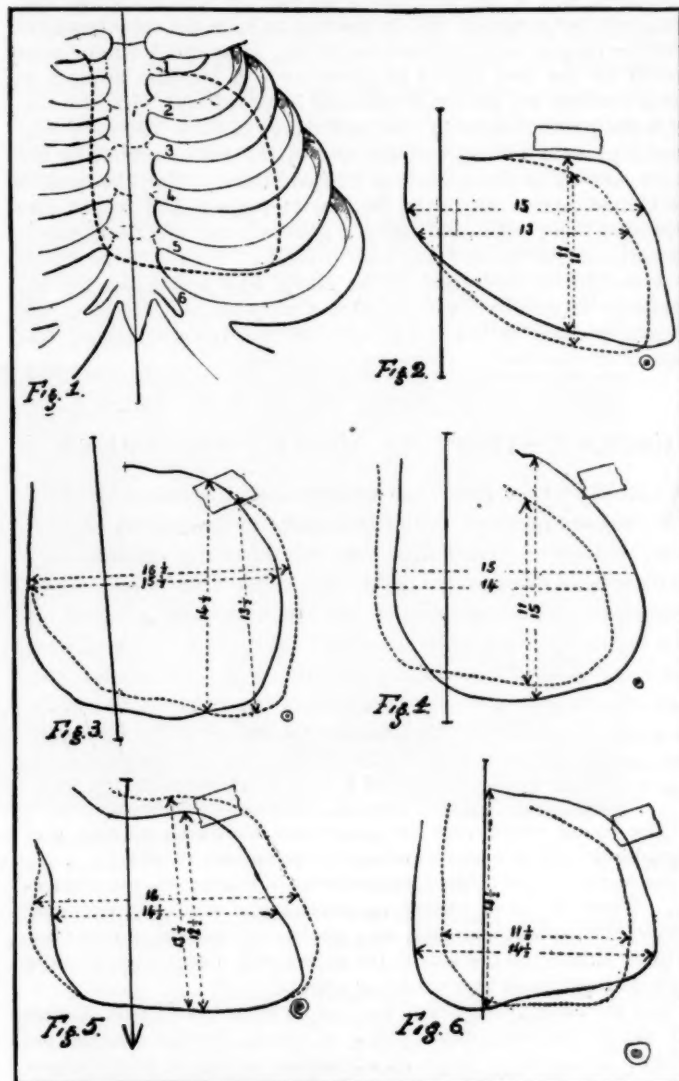


FIG. 2.—CHANGES IN THE HEART.

1, Position of heart in thorax. 2, Heart lowered and contracted. 3, Heart moved outward and expanded. 4, Heart moved inward, raised and contracted. 5, Heart distended. 6, Heart contracted.

blood (and thus expands). It may also happen that it contracts irregularly in different parts; we then observe modifications of form and movements of translation.

"To sum up, we see that the heart changes form and size with the greatest ease. The exactitude of this very ancient notion is vigorously demonstrated by means of phonendoscopy, and the application of this interesting method is thus a very curious one." —Translated for THE LITERARY DIGEST.

Is there Gold in the Philippines?—"A story has been current in the papers," says *The Engineering and Mining Journal*, New York, "of the extraordinary richness of the Philippine Islands in gold. A 'Pacific Klondike,' a 'New Eldorado,' and similar expressions are used. The story also has been embellished by accounts of lost and hidden mines, and rich deposits concealed by monks—incidents which have a very familiar sound, and have evidently been borrowed from some old Mexican tale. The facts, so far as known, are that there is some gold in the islands, as there is in nearly every country. The natives have for a long time obtained small quantities of placer gold from the interior of the island of Luzon, which is little known; and an

English company has been for several years past working a gold-mine on the same island, but with no great degree of success. It is not at all likely that the Spaniards have held possession of the islands for so many years without finding gold, if it exists in large quantities. They have always been eager and skilful searchers for the precious metals and generally very successful prospectors, and there is no reason why their Eastern colony should be any exception to the rule, if gold existed there. In fact, the mere existence of the native races on the islands is, to those who know the Spaniards' methods, a demonstration that gold was never known to exist there in any considerable quantity. Wherever workable gold-placers existed in Spanish colonies, the native races were exterminated by their cruel taskmasters, when, through the working out of the deposits, they were no longer able to furnish the stipulated quantity of gold. No, we think it safe to say, no workable gold-placers exist in the Philippines."

LIQUEFACTION OF HYDROGEN.

ONE of the classical obstacles in the path of the experimental physicist has just been removed, in the liquefaction of hydrogen gas, by Professor Dewar, the eminent English experimenter. Since other so-called "permanent" gases have yielded to the skill of modern manipulators, efforts to coerce hydrogen also have been redoubled; but altho success has been claimed in one or two instances, these claims have not been generally acknowledged, and, even if they were justified, they relate only to minute quantities. Of Professor Dewar's feat *Industries and Iron* (London, May 13) says:

"Last Tuesday saw another successful issue of experiments when Professor Dewar, at the Royal Institution, succeeded in liquefying hydrogen in such a quantity as to throw in the shade the previous theoretical liquefaction of the gas. He also succeeded in liquefying helium. The importance of the successful carrying out of what has proved a stumbling-block to scientific investigators in the past can not be overrated, and it is within the bounds of possibility that the equivocal theories and mass of 'results' observed by the supposed liquefaction of hydrogen in minute quantities in the past will be swept away, now that it is possible to liquefy the gas in considerable volume, and a new and potent instrument is placed at the service of investigators. It is already rumored that the density of liquid hydrogen far exceeds that previously arrived at by calculation. The liquefaction of helium was rendered possible by the use of liquid hydrogen, and thus one result of the liquefaction of hydrogen has been the accomplishment of what has hitherto baffled all efforts."

Commenting on the news of Professor Dewar's success *The Pharmaceutical Era* (May 19) says:

"The despatch is meager in particulars, and we must wait for the details concerning the method and apparatus employed in the accomplishment of the feat. But the fact that it is done is sufficient to interest the whole scientific world. It is an achievement which will make Professor Dewar's name familiar as a household word."

"The progress made in the past few years in both directions, intense heat and intense cold, has been remarkable. Between the extremes of the electric furnace and artificial diamonds, on the one hand, and liquid hydrogen on the other, there lies material for a romance of fact, if the phrase be accepted, far exceeding in interest the highest and boldest fancy of the most imaginative writer of fiction. A liquid boiling several hundred degrees below zero rather upsets our ordinary conception that boiling means heat that burns. We are not accustomed to air which can be ladled out by the dipperful as a quiet mobile fluid, one which, while actively boiling, will freeze a beefsteak or absolute alcohol. We have been accustomed to consider heat and cold and boiling and freezing as absolute, rather than relative terms, and our prejudices and cherished delusions have been rudely shocked by these scientists.

"The liquefaction or solidification, by the combination of cold and pressure of elements hitherto believed to be not susceptible to such changes has done much to assist the chemist in the verification of his theories, but has at the same time shown him that

many properties heretofore considered inherent attributes of these elements are characteristics of condition only. The chemical activities and affinities and the physical properties of elements and compounds are changed to a marvelous degree in passing from the gaseous to the liquid state. It has been believed that if hydrogen could only be liquefied, many problems would be rendered easy of solution, many an obscure question be cleared up. Liquid hydrogen is now a fact.

"Professor Dewar has produced half a wineglassful of liquid hydrogen in five minutes, and reports that the process is applicable to any quantity. Mr. Tripler, the liquid-air manufacturer, will show us how to make it by the gallon or milk-canful.

"But the interesting feature of Dewar's achievement is that liquid hydrogen boils at 240° below Centigrade, or, in other words, it must be liquefied at or below that temperature. The theoretical absolute zero of the scientist has been put at -273° C. Either Dewar is pretty close to it, or absolute zero must be put down a few more degrees."

The "Far-Seer."—Few more particulars about the reported invention of Herr Szczepanik for reproducing optical images at a distance are forthcoming. *The Electrical Engineer* (London) says: "Mr. Paul Schmidt gives in a Vienna paper further details of Herr Szczepanik's invention, with a diagram of connections which is unintelligible. The gist of the whole article lies in the last paragraph, which practically states that the inventor has abandoned selenium as unsatisfactory, and that he is experimenting on a more sensitive compound of his own. When this is a success more details will be given. We remember that the last time we prophesied that an inventor was stating his ideas as facts without first trying them, we were threatened with personal violence. In spite of this, we do not mind venturing the prophecy that so far Herr Szczepanik has carried out no successful experiment, but has confined his attention to romancing to untechnical reporters." *Black and White*, London, prints an interview with the inventor, but it is filled chiefly with personal details. In it, however, Herr Szczepanik is quoted as saying: "I do not say that my instrument is perfect. Was photography perfect, was the telephone or the telegraph perfect when first introduced to the public? Well, it must be relatively the same thing with the telectroscope. But I claim to be able to show a true picture of the object—be it a written-out telegram or a battle—with all the clearness of the cinematograph. . . . My aim in physics is simplicity, and to exclude the unnecessary and superfluous. Unfortunately, it takes years and years of this exclusive process before mankind has finally reached that goal which is perfection."

SCIENCE BREVITIES.

THE X rays can be used to treat certain diseases, according to the Vienna correspondent of *The London Times*, as quoted in *Science*. He telegraphs that some interesting particulars of such an application of the rays were communicated by Dr. Edward Schiff, lecturer at the Vienna University, at the last sitting of the Imperial and Royal Medical Society. "A series of experiments conducted by Dr. Schiff and his assistant proved that these rays could be used for the cure of disease in a manner capable of perfect control by means of a more or less intense application for a longer or shorter period, producing reaction in the exact degree required. In this way it has been possible for the lecturer, on the one hand, to remove hair from parts of the body where it constituted a disfigurement, without causing the slightest inflammation, while, on the other hand, he has been able to treat lupus with uniform success by means of an artificial inflammation, the intensity of which he was in a position to increase or reduce at will. The results secured by the new method both in the removal of superfluous hair and the treatment of lupus were demonstrated in the persons of some of Dr. Schiff's patients."

"It is claimed that a practical commercial application of liquefied air is to make an explosive by mixing the liquid air with carbon," says *The Engineering and Mining Journal*. "In a recent lecture before the Society of Arts Prof. J. A. Ewing gave a very interesting account of the details of the process of manufacture employed by Dr. Linde. The explosive obtained by mixing liquid air, enriched by the evaporation of a large part of its nitrogen, with powdered charcoal, compares in power with dynamite and can be made to go off violently by using a detonator. Cotton wadding impregnated with coarse charcoal powder can take up more than enough liquid air to supply oxygen for its complete combustion, and when put quickly into thick insulating cases, made of paper, the explosive power is retained for five or ten minutes. According to the size of the cartridge and this power is lost after an interval varying from fifty to thirty minutes. For several purposes this is a decided advantage. On account of the low temperature produced by the explosive, which is lower than that required to ignite fire-damp, the process has been commercially used in some coal-mines in Germany, and has been found very satisfactory."

THE RELIGIOUS WORLD.

GLADSTONE AS A CHRISTIAN.

IT would be impossible to give any just estimate of Gladstone's life and services without recognizing the dominance of the religious element in his character. Reports of the statesman's last days made frequent mention of the testimony he bore over and over again to faith and trust in the Heavenly Father. Canon Scott Holland said of him during those trying hours: "Life is spent now in benedictions to those whom he leaves behind in this world and in thanksgiving to God, to whom he rehearses over and over again, day after day, Newman's hymn of austere and splendid adoration:

'Praise to the Holiest in the height,
And in the depth be praise;
all His works most wonderful,
Most sure in all His ways.'

In acknowledging the message of the Hebdomadal Council of Oxford University, conveyed through the vice-chancellor, Mr. Gladstone described his old *alma mater* as "the God-fearing and God-sustaining University of Oxford," adding, "my most earnest prayers are hers to uttermost and the last." Later still, in the very hour of death, the chanting of the litany brought from his lips as their last word upon earth a whispered "Amen."

Universal recognition of this element of religious faith in Gladstone's character has been given in the eulogies pronounced upon him since his death, from the platform, the pulpit, and the press. Prime Minister Salisbury, in proposing a resolution in the House of Lords for a public funeral and a monument in Westminster Abbey for Mr. Gladstone, said: "He will long be remembered, not so much for the causes in which he engaged or the political projects he favored, as for his great example, of which history has hardly furnished a parallel, of a great Christian man." The Earl of Rosebery, in supporting this resolution, said Mr. Gladstone's Christian faith "pervaded every act and part of his life. It was the pure faith of a child confirmed by the experience and conviction of manhood."

It is in such light that Gladstone's life is held up to view by the writers of the religious press. Thus the editor of *The Christian Intelligencer* (Dutch Reformed, New York) says:

"It is acknowledged by all familiar with his life, public and private, that Mr. Gladstone as a man, a leader in Parliament, and a Prime Minister, was controlled by high moral purposes, and strove continually for the attainment of a high moral ideal, and that this was the product of his Christian faith. He held fast to the belief of the evangelical churches. He understood that belief thoroughly, accepted it heartily, defended it with signal ability, and made it the rule of his life. He trusted in simple faith in the God of the Bible, in our Lord and Savior Jesus Christ. With full knowledge of the attempts of this age to bring the Bible into discredit he accepted the Holy Scriptures as the infallible Word of God."

The Christian Advocate (Meth. Episc., New York) concludes a long and appreciative review with the following:

"His career demonstrates the compatibility of the most intense activity and absorbing interest in science, literature, and art, and the bearing of great personal and public burdens with systematic religious life and work, and stamps forever as fallacious the plea which statesmen, politicians, and men in great business glibly make, that they are too busy to give attention to religion. The nation which possesses one such man can not perish while he lives."

The Christian Observer (Presbyterian, Louisville) dwells upon the contributions which Gladstone made to religious literature, and says that at least one third of the books he published were "in the interests of religion, and in them his tone has been that of the Christian of true evangelical spirit." *The Examiner*

(Baptist, New York) says that all of Gladstone's life-work had its source in the conviction that things are important only as they have "true relation to God and humanity." It continues:

"He was thus the preeminent type of the Christian statesman; and it is quite significant, in the midst of the airy and frivolous skepticism of the time, to recall how the closing days of his great life were lovingly devoted to a defense of 'the impregnable rock of Holy Scripture.'"

From a Roman Catholic source (*Catholic World Magazine*), we get the following comment:

"William Ewart Gladstone died, as he had lived, outside the visible fold of the Catholic Church. There was in the minds of many undoubtedly a hope, when the end drew near, that he would see the truth as other great Englishmen of his day have seen it, and embrace it. While Gladstone's mind was keen in its logical faculty and broad in its grasp of matters religious as well as secular, yet, whether it was from an innate quality or from an acquired habit, it was essentially 'political' in its view of affairs. . . . One with a politician's temperament will argue and argue convincingly to himself that the providence of God has placed him in the Established Church. 'It must be of God, because I see about me in the hearts of men identified with it the fruits of the Spirit, and it is the will of God that I stay where I am and pilot this vessel, unseaworthy as it is, with its freight of precious souls, into the haven of safety, rather than desert it and allow it to go to pieces on the rocks of irreligion.'"

The Herald and Presbyter (Presbyterian, Cincinnati) says of Gladstone that "he was a sincere and evangelical Christian, and the forceful power of his great life was for truth and righteousness." *Christian Work* (undenom., New York) says: "It is a great source of comfort and satisfaction in these days of religious doubt and unrest to think of this man, the foremost statesman, orator, scholar, and thinker of modern times, as one whose faith and trust in God never wavered, as one whose love for Christ was always sweet and tender as the love of a child." *The Watchman* (Baptist, Boston) thinks he "set before the world a noble ideal of the Christian statesman." *The Outlook* (undenom., New York) says:

"Any estimate of Mr. Gladstone would be singularly defective which did not recognize his Christian character. For it was the distinguishing mark of his statesmanship that, in marked contrast with his most eminent political rival, Mr. Disraeli, he sought for the solution of the current political problems of his time in the application to them of religious principles. His frequent service as a reader of the Lessons in the church at Hawarden was significant as an indication of his readiness to be everywhere known as not only a Christian but a churchman. Yet we doubt whether even his bitterest enemy ever suspected him of using the appearance of religion as an instrument for winning political popularity. His piety was both unaffected and practical: the simple faith of a man who believed in God and in righteousness, and built as a statesman on that faith. His righteousness was the chief element in his greatness; it was the secret of his clearness of vision, his resoluteness of courage, and his breadth of human sympathy, and it inspired that affection and esteem in which, now that life's battle is over, he is universally held."

In the course of an editorial on "Gladstone as a Christian," *The Congregationalist* (Boston) says: "Great as he has been as a statesman, he has been most conspicuous as a Christian," and *The Pilot* (Roman Catholic, Boston) concludes an article on the great Englishman in these words:

"If he was, as he has been called, an opportunist, he was that rare anomaly, an honest opportunist. He was never a religious bigot, and he who has the power of great growth, the capacity for great knowledge within him, reckons little that he is called inconsistent when his conscience tells him he has only discarded wrong for right, or good for best."

"It is the chief of Gladstone's distinctions to have proved in his own person that a great public success can be won by Christian methods. His age, on which he exercised such immense formative influence, needs this last lesson."

THE REAL "HOLY MAN" OF INDIA.

INDIA'S greatest "holy man" is not a fanatic. His greatness does not consist in a life spent in one posture or in tortures self-inflicted, but in good works and life-long hostility to superstition. He combats popular errors, yet the people rank him as a demigod; he fights against the distinctions of caste, yet the upper classes hold him in loving veneration. Above all others, he is known all over India as the real Holy Man. He discards clothing as vanity, but, aside from this, there is nothing to distinguish him from the cultured and educated Hindus who surround him in his daily life. Swami Baskara Naud Saraswati, the Holy Man of Benares, is described, from a personal interview, by Allan Forman in *Frank Leslie's Popular Monthly* (June). Those who were interested in the Parliament of Religions at the World's Fair in Chicago in 1893 will remember that one of the papers read there was from Swami Saraswati's pen. Mr. Forman describes the Swami as a tall, slender man of about seventy, having a strong face with classic features, reminding one strongly of the portrait busts of Cicero. From under his overhanging brows shine a pair of wonderfully brilliant black eyes, as kind, however, as they are keen. When a young man he was rich and possessed a family of young children, Mr. Forman tells us, but decided to devote his life to religion. Accordingly, after making ample provision for his family, and dividing the rest of his wealth among the poor, he retired for twenty years of study and meditation. His study made him the greatest Sanscrit scholar of modern India; his meditation has resulted in a life devoted to freeing the Hindus from superstition:

"It was about 1874 when he emerged from his retreat in the jungle where for twenty years he had been studying the Vedas and other works of Oriental philosophy under the guidance of mystics and anchorites. From the first day of his appearance Saraswati Swami produced an immense impression, and soon received the title, from the English press, of 'the Luther of India.' An orator of unusual power and magnetism, and possessed in a high degree of that poetical eloquence which delights the Oriental, he gathered crowds wherever he went, and he traversed India from Bombay to Calcutta, and from the Himalayas to Cape Cormorin. He preached the 'One Deity,' and, Vedas in hand, proved that there was not a word in the ancient writings to justify polytheism. Thundering against idol-worship, the great orator fights with all his might against caste, infant marriages, and superstitions. He blames the Brahmans, or hereditary priests, for the degeneracy of the Hindu religion and the evils which have been engrafted upon it by centuries of false interpretation of the Vedas.

"Like all reformers, Saraswati Swami has made many enemies among the powerful Brahman caste which he so persistently attacks, and their hatred for him is intensified by the fact that he has made many converts from among their own ranks. Several attempts to assassinate him in Benares have failed."

The best comment on his power is the fact that he has, by his wonderful eloquence and consistent example, made nearly three million proselytes, chiefly among the higher castes.

John Wesley's Benevolence.—The effects of John Wesley's high thinking are still evident, but his plain living is more likely to be lost sight of. An anecdote which serves to recall the latter characteristic is related by *Friendly Greetings* for April, and is quoted by *The Westminster Gazette* as follows:

"When his income was only thirty pounds a year he lived on twenty-eight pounds, and gave away forty shillings. The next year, receiving sixty pounds, he still lived on twenty-eight, and devoted the remainder to charitable uses. The third year he received ninety pounds, out of which he subscribed sixty-two pounds to the needy. In the course of fifty years he gave away more than thirty thousand pounds.

"In the same magazine there is a striking letter of Wesley's. The Government in 1776 resolved to issue the following circular, and a copy was sent to the great preacher:

"REVEREND SIR:—As the Commissioners can not doubt that you have plate for which you have hitherto neglected to make an entry, they have directed me to send you a copy of the Lords' Order, and to inform you that they expect that you will forthwith mark the entry of all your plate, such entry to bear date from the commencement of the plate duty, or from such time as you have served, used, had, or kept any quantity of silver plate, chargeable by the Act of Parliament, as in default thereof the Board will be obliged to signify your refusal to their lordships.

"N. B.—An immediate answer is desired."

"Mr. Wesley replied as follows:

"SIR:—I have two silver teaspoons at London, and two at Bristol; this is all the plate which I have at present, and I shall not buy any more while so many around me want bread.

"I am, sir, your most humble servant,

JOHN WESLEY."

"THE WANING OF EVANGELICALISM."

WHAT remains but the teaching of catastrophe? 'The ax will be laid to the foot of the tree.' In such a manner Richard Heath closes a striking article, bound to create discussion, in *The Contemporary Review* (May). It is an indictment of the Evangelical movement started by Law, carried on by Wesley and Whitefield, later by Finney, later still by Moody, Spurgeon, and "General" Booth, for its neglect of a great opportunity, its failure to interpret God's message in history, its disloyalty to the masses, and its blindness to the great truth of the unity and solidarity of humanity. As a result of all this, it is a waning movement—rapidly waning. It has failed to hear the voices of the prophets—of Maurice and Carlyle and Ruskin and Tolstoi. "What remains but the teaching of catastrophe?"

Mr. Heath's article is divided into four parts, the first of which describes the rise and spread of Evangelicalism, the second arrays facts showing its decline, the third aims to dispel the idea that this decline is due to agnostic or skeptic views, and the fourth is an attempt to portray the real causes of decline. By Evangelicalism he means the movement that is really one in doctrine with the Methodist revival movement of the Wesleys, being based upon the fall of man, the sacrifice of Christ not only on behalf of man but in place of man, grace the sole originating cause of man's salvation, justification by faith the sole instrumental cause, the need of a new birth, and of the constant and sustaining action of the Holy Spirit. These doctrines were already embedded in the formularies of the Church of England and in Nonconformist creeds when the Evangelical movement began. But the revivalists took them seriously and lived up to them. The movement has spread to vast proportions. Revivalism has been its most characteristic feature, but not its chief source of influence. Two hundred thousand sermons every Sunday—more than ten million a year—can be attributed to it. Thousands of missionaries have been sent out by it, great non-denominational and non-ecclesiastical societies have been formed by it, a vast number of churches and chapels have been built by it. It awoke English religion out of its torpor, has produced generations of remarkable pulpit orators, and attained such power that it may be called the English religion of the nineteenth century, and became a leading if not the leading fact in the history of English-speaking lands for two centuries.

Now the movement is waning. In the Church of England, the Evangelical clergyman may say with the lonely worshiper of Jehovah:

"I watch and am become
Like a sparrow alone upon the housetop."

According to the Bishop of Liverpool, "the Evangelical clergy are to-day but a small minority of the Church of England." The great Evangelical institutions are burdened with growing deficits. The Evangelical denominations are declining in membership, or at least not keeping pace with the population. The Baptists (in England) just about keep pace with the population. The Wesleyans increased but 5 per cent. from 1888 to 1896, while the population increased 7½ per cent. In Birmingham and Liver-

pool, while the church accommodations have been greatly enlarged since 1861, the attendance upon the services has actually decreased. In this country a similar waning of power is seen in the fact that the Congregational and Presbyterian bodies returned, in 1896, 3,000 churches which did not report a member added in the previous year by profession of faith. In Europe we find the same state of things, but much aggravated. *The Huguenot*, a monthly organ of the Reformed churches of France, declared in 1893 that the French Protestant churches are declining at the rate of one church (6,000 members) a year, and at this rate there will be no more Protestants in France at the end of the next century. In Berlin, it is said, only 10 per cent. of the population attend church and in Hamburg only 1½ per cent. If these figures and facts are not convincing, Mr. Heath refers us to "the voice of the people," as heard in the letters from the working classes sent in 1897 to *The Methodist Times*, of London, in response to an invitation to them to tell the reasons for their non-attendance at church.

Very briefly Mr. Heath dismisses the surmise that general agnosticism is to blame for this alienation of the people from the Evangelical churches. "All who really know the people," he asserts, "know that they are quite as truly religious as they ever were, and those who have mingled freely with them must feel that it is not Christianity as taught in the New Testament, but as practically exemplified by the nineteenth-century Christianity, that they repudiate."

What, then, is the reason for the waning of Evangelicalism? Says Mr. Heath:

"Evangelicalism, coming into existence under an extremely individualistic and competitive order of things, has seen nothing in the Gospel but a plan of individual salvation. It has had but little idea of the common salvation, of the unity of mankind in Christ, and of the mutual responsibility of all men. It has hardly seemed to understand that a divine Helper was in the world, opening men's eyes to what is evil, gradually giving them higher notions of what is right, and a better judgment as to the real good and the real evil; and, failing to comprehend this, Evangelicalism has never understood the age in which it has run its course."

The attitude of the early Evangelical leaders, Wesley, Whitefield, Howell Harris, Fletcher, and others, in condemnation of the French Revolution and the American Revolution, are cited in illustration of the above statement. Hannah More published with "the approbation of the whole Evangelical party" her "Village Politics; or, Will Chip," ridiculing the notion of equality and fraternity. The power and energy of Evangelicalism have been centered upon the upper middle class, whose sole idea of life was to struggle upward, let the rest of mankind sink as they might. Its dependence on this class has made Evangelicalism "shut its eyes more closely than ever to the great social revolution which, commencing in the last century, is still going on." Mr. Heath continues his indictment:

"Evangelicalism has denied God in history, has refused to recognize His providential government of the world, or, if it has not formally taken up this infidel position, it has treated the question with a true English contempt for consistency. God was in the Reformation, but not in the Revolution. He came to judge Christendom in the sixteenth century, but not in the eighteenth. It is this indifference to truth, when truth interferes with prejudice and interest, that has done so much harm to Evangelicalism."

"For this blindness to the great social sunrise which has lit up the whole century, and is gradually leading to the emancipation of the laboring classes in Europe and America, has lost Evangelicalism the opportunity it has desired—to be the herald to them and all the world of the great salvation. And still more this blindness has strengthened in it that hardness of heart and contempt of God's Word and commandment which characterizes the whole of Christendom, and which is one of the reasons why its official representatives have not only lost their hold on the masses, but have driven into antagonism so many of the more conscientious and finer souls in Europe and America."

"This hardness of heart has not only appeared in the methods

at times adopted by Evangelical revivalists, but more especially in the astonishing lack of Christian brotherhood displayed in all sections of Evangelicalism, even to the point of permitting those who have worked for the Gospel as their agents and representatives to sink into being recipients of parish relief or to die in the hospital or workhouse. And in that class which has afforded Evangelicalism such support, and whose families have been its peculiar domain, how many hundreds of merchants, traders, and farmers, of whom it has made much in their prosperity, has it allowed, when ruin overtook them, to die broken-hearted or in bitterness of spirit?

"Contempt of God's Word and commandment is a serious charge, but can it be said to be too severe a description of a movement which has systematically and persistently ignored the main teaching of the Gospels? If in Christ, as Evangelicalism has always taught, 'dwelt the fulness of the Godhead bodily,' if He was in fact the divine Wisdom teaching men the true way of life, how can Evangelicalism be acquitted of contempt of God's Word when, in place of obeying His commandments, it has led its followers to regard the Sermon on the Mount as an impossible ideal which no sensible man could really think of taking as a rule of life?—causing men, therefore, to regard God's Word as something Quixotic and Utopian."

Because of this "hardness of heart" Evangelicalism has failed to understand contemporary history, failed to see that revelation is continuous, failed to recognize the great truth of the unity and solidarity of humanity.

The old Evangelicalism is waning; but this waning may pre-empt a new waxing:

"As among the decay of a past summer we often see, ere winter is over, new shoots springing up which will be the glory of the coming year, so it is with present-day Evangelicalism—its spiritual life is already taking new forms. Efforts to do away with sectarianism and to repair the broken unity of the church, efforts to find expression in the church for the mind and soul of the coming generation, efforts to live the life which Christ Himself enjoined on His disciples, efforts to share in the sufferings of the miserable, sunk in the sordid life of the slums, and to lift them out of it—such efforts, and many similar ones, may indicate the coming of a new Evangelicalism."

RELIGIOUS NOTES.

ACCORDING to *The Church Times*, a curious development has taken place in East Oxford, in the shape of a monastic brotherhood, called the "Order of the Christian Faith," for Unitarian monks of the "Evangelical Catholic (Universalist and Unitarian Christian) Church of the Divine Love."

THE Roman Catholic Church seems more aggressive in Alaska than any other. The Jesuits have a church, a hospital, and a schoolhouse in Dawson City. Six sisters of St. Anne are on their way from Montreal to nurse the sick. Father Rene, prefect apostolic of Alaska, has gone to Paris to get funds to prosecute work among the miners.

IT is learned from *The Independent* that the vote on the proposition to allow equal lay representation in the Methodist General Conference is now practically complete in so far as the spring conferences are concerned. The total affirmative vote is 3,244; negative, 930. Last year the same conferences gave 1,426 for and 2,663 against. The proposition now has the necessary three-fourths vote, with 114 to spare. The fall conferences are yet to vote.

AT a recent meeting of the Lutheran Synod in New York a resolution was adopted deprecating "the favorable attitude of so large a portion of the secular press toward an extreme theological liberalism, as tho it represented progressive scholarship and the true spirit of Christianity, while the evangelical orthodoxy which reflects prevalent Christian faith and theology is continuously misrepresented and opposed," and commending only such secular journals as treat respectfully and reverently the common, orthodox faith of the Christian world." *The Christian Advocate*, in noticing this resolution, expresses the opinion "that it is time other denominations take similar action."

AN extract from a recent letter from Dr. Martineau is given by Rev. R. Spears in *The Unitarian Bible Magazine*, in which Dr. Martineau reiterates his contention that a church should not bear a dogmatic name like "Unitarian." He says: "I regard the limitation of fellowship by such definite consensus of opinion as unfaithfulness to the religion of Christ. To say that it is indispensable to public worship in common is to ignore the fact that all through the change from Baxter's Orthodoxy to Priestley's Humanitarianism our Presbyterian congregations held together with few instances of schism modifying their theology by scarcely perceptible degrees. And this is the healthy mode of progress and development which saves the pieties while enlarging them instead of tightening them up by creed definition till they rebel and break loose."

FOREIGN TOPICS.

BRITAIN'S SEARCH FOR A PARTNER.

A FEW months ago Mr. Chamberlain expressed his pride in Britain's "splendid isolation." The British papers now call it Britain's "dangerous isolation." They speak of the possibilities of a war in which England will be overmatched, and they are a little worried about it. *The St. James's Gazette*, London, says:

"An anti-English alliance as a means of diverting the hostility of France to Germany was a favorite dream of Prince Bismarck's, and he is supposed to have instilled his views into the receptive mind of his young pupil, the present Emperor. . . .

"Russia pays small attention to our wishes. Are we going to allow this repeated breach of the assurances given us? Round the world we seem to see the symptoms of a coalition having as its object a war that will soon drive the trumpery dispute about Cuba in the background. What our place in it—or happily out of it—may be it is too soon to speculate; but the moving spirits are by no means filled with love for England or with tender regard for her interests. It will be well for us to be ready for a struggle that may involve events more important for civilization than any since the fall of Napoleon."

Realizing her danger, England looks for assistance. The most natural course is to obtain the help of the country which is bound to her by the tie of a common language—the United States. Many Britons think the United States and Great Britain would have a comparatively easy task in subjecting the world to the will of the English-speaking peoples. *The Westminster Gazette* says:

"There is every reason why Great Britain and the United States should work together in such a policy of expansion. The open door and commercial facilities must be the chief aim of both of them. Their joint fleets with the unique power that fleets have of acting all over the world should make them both independent of European combinations, which are as likely to squeeze the Americans when they emerge from their continent as they already squeeze the English. This seems to us a reasonable end to keep in view, and the hope of it may reconcile us to changes in Europe which are not altogether to our advantage. It is a policy which can not be constructed suddenly or by any wave of sentiment, but it is in the nature of things, and it ought to be gradually built up out of joint interests and joint aims."

The alliance finds favor in Canada, too. *The Montreal Witness* hopes "the United States will prevent a coalition of the powers against Great Britain." *The Ottawa Free Press* hopes that Britain's "dangerous isolation" will cease through the agency of the United States. *The Aylmer Sun* thinks that Great Britain in general and Canada in particular could only benefit by the alliance.

But there are many difficulties in the way. There are, it is argued in England, many anti-English elements in the United States, and that section of the population which perpetuates English custom and the English way of thinking does not exercise undisputed sway. Hence there is much distrust of America in Great Britain, heightened by correspondence from Canada which goes to show that the Canadians do not regard an alliance with the United States as an unmitigated blessing.

Moreover, we are in receipt of numerous marked copies and cuttings from Canada showing that our Canadian contemporaries seem to think that *THE LITERARY DIGEST* has overrated the strength of the Anglo-Saxon movement in the Dominion. We take the following from one of the most moderate arguments, an editorial in *Nor'wester*, Winnipeg:

"America is neither a great military nor a great naval power. In the event of a contest against one or more of the first-class European powers, it is hardly likely that the United States could defend itself, much less render any effective aid in ships or men

to Great Britain. . . . Moreover, the ostentatious formation of a so-called Anglo-Saxon league, however meaningless in reality and of whatever small practical value, would be an incentive to the formation of a counter league on the part of several other of the European nations. A Latin league—with the passive, if not, possibly, the active, sympathy of the Slav nations—for the humiliation of Great Britain would, for instance, be a natural sequence to an Anglo-Saxon league; and the support which the United States could give to Great Britain would be dearly purchased by Great Britain at the price of such a confederacy against her. . . . There is very great danger that, were such an alliance consummated, it would be purchased by a surrender on the part of Great Britain to the United States on all those questions now in dispute between Canada and the United States. That Canada is right in these various disputes would not affect the matter. . . . Knowing the Americans as Canadians do, there is no doubt as to the extent to which the United States would take advantage of the opportunities of bullying Canada afforded by such circumstances. Canada's life among nations would be simply a dog's life, full of kicks and humiliations. She could hardly be worse off if the United States and Great Britain were at hostilities than she would be during the existence of such an alliance."

The *Toronto Telegram* points out that United States newspapers already dispose of Great Britain's West Indian possessions. It says:

"The *New York Journal* suggests that Great Britain had better exchange the West Indian islands for the Philippines, because sooner or later the United States will secure these islands 'even at the price of war.'

"It is easy to disparage the *New York Journal*, but its utterances are significant, because it represents, possibly, a majority of Americans, who do their thinking on the moral level of the *New York Journal*."

"Great Britain will probably hold on to the West Indian islands, because Britain is strong enough, and will be strong enough, to retain its own property without regard to the wishes of the American people for whom the *New York Journal* speaks."

There are many hints, polite and otherwise, indicating that a number of Canadians, if not the majority, doubt the humanitarian motives of the United States.

Failing an alliance with the United States, many Britons turn to Germany. The German papers, however, assert that England will have to make handsome concessions for German help. Four or five years ago England could have joined the Triple Alliance. Since then the enmity manifested in England against the German Empire, the flings at the Emperor, the fierce mercantile and industrial competition between the two countries, have produced a change in German sentiment. We summarize the following from an important article in the *Preussische Jahrbücher*, in which the celebrated German traveler Rohrbach relates his interview with Prince Uchtomsky, editor of the *Viedomosti*, and the most enthusiastic advocate of Russia's policy of expansion:

The Russian said: I was very much displeased that Germany, despite the fact that Russia said plainly she did not want her in Kiau-Chou, occupied the place. Shantung I consider as the Russian sphere of interest. And now Germany declares that she had no objection to the British occupation of Wei-hei-Wei! But it is not yet too late to come to terms. We must form an alliance against England, as England undoubtedly has allied herself with Japan. Asia, including India, is Russia's sphere of interest; but we have no objection if Germany gets a foothold somewhere in the south of China. Germany must not, as has been suggested, attempt to colonize in Asia Minor, but she may take what she likes in South America. When Austria breaks up, Germany and Russia will divide her. In the Balkan peninsula Germany must not attempt to extend her influence. Russia will give Germany all the trading facilities she wants, but England is not to be trusted. Germany must choose an honest partner.

Rohrbach remarks to this: Evidently the Russians have very large ideas, but they will probably understand that practise is different from theory. First of all, Russia wants all China, offering us only the promise of the right to do business and a trading-station or so. Next the question of Austria. That country is

still ruled by the Germans, and we are not likely to permit its division, even if the German Empire is slightly increased. We prefer a friendly state as neighbor, in which the men of our race retain their traditional predominance. With South America the Russians have really nothing to do. The point is, we are established in Shantung, which is really that part of China most capable of development. Russia does not like to see us there, but she expects a war with England in the near future, and she is anxious to obtain our help.

We quote direct the closing sentences:

"We are now placed before this problem: Shall we enable Russia to have an easy victory over England? If we remove English rivalry, it is a matter of secondary importance whether Shantung is to be exchanged for a position further South.

"Shall we deliver England into the hands of Russia? The answer to this question decides the fate of the world.

"What reason have we to say *No*?"—*Translations made for THE LITERARY DIGEST.*

FOREIGN COMMENTS ON THE WAR.

SINCE the publication of the American report of the battle of Manila, supplemented by accounts from European special correspondents, the naval critic is abroad, and Admiral Montojo is criticized severely for remaining at Manila. The Spanish commander admits that the Americans stole a march upon him. According to the *Liberal*, Madrid, he informed the captain-general that it was useless to fight, and that, from a purely humane point of view, it would be better to surrender. Both officers, however, feared that a surrender of the fleet would result in serious loss of prestige, and the battle was accepted in order to prove that the Spaniards would fight to the end. Viewed in the light of European comments, this calculation has proved to be correct. *The Westminster Gazette*, London, says:

"It is clearly the part of a prudent commander to protect his own combatants, and Admiral Dewey did that, while achieving all that he set out to do. The Spanish loss is very heavy, but the Spaniards, when it came to the point, fought splendidly, and showed that it was not for lack of personal valor that they lost the day. They were hopelessly overmatched, and the battle shows that a naval battle is practically lost or won on the practising ground and in the gun factory. From the American ships, out of range themselves, the American guns poured in a terrible and unerring fire on the Spanish ships, which in the circumstances were quite helpless. An attempt to get within range of the American ships, tho pluckily made, resulted in entire disaster."

From a long article in *The St. James's Gazette* we take the following:

"There is a striking similarity with the battle of Sinope, when a powerful Russian squadron cornered a weak Turkish one, and destroyed it with trifling loss to itself. . . . If we wish to express the combatants at Manila in terms of the sailing fleet, we should say that one eighty-gun ship, three seventy-fours, and two corvettes, armed with long guns, had fallen upon two thirty-six gun frigates, and a handful of brigs, or cutters, armed with carronades. In such a case, and in the year 1798, the destruction of the smaller squadron would have been inevitable and instant, if it attempted resistance at all. Indeed, so well was the superiority of the great ship known in those days, that an officer in the Spanish admiral's position would not have made a fight at all. . . . Admiral Dewey did what would be expected. Any officer who, having it in his power to do this, did not avail himself of his superiority, would be wanting in the intellect of a moderate-sized rabbit. . . . Yet he only did what Captain Hilyar, of the *Phæbe*, did when he cut the American frigate *Essex* to pieces at Valparaiso very much at his ease."

The papers are full of praise for the bravery of the Spaniards, and it is thought that an American squadron meeting Spanish ships on something like equal terms would have its hands full. The results of the battle are rather minimized now. *The Journal des Débats*, Paris, says that, since Augusti can not get at

Dewey, and Dewey has no means of attacking the Spaniards, both must rest on their arms. Bombardments of coast towns are a useless piece of atrocity, unworthy of civilized nations. In Germany, too, the battle of Manila is not regarded as proof of American naval superiority. In the *Vossische Zeitung*, Berlin, a writer expresses himself as follows:

"It is astonishing that the fleets in the Atlantic Ocean have not yet come to blows. The Americans no doubt knew long ago that they would declare war, yet their naval authorities have not thought it worth the while to devise plans of attack. It is clear that *neither* fleet was ready when war was declared. Nothing so weakens the opponent morally as a few decisive blows right in the beginning. That the Spanish fleet was not ready, surprises no one. But this unreadiness on the part of the Americans causes astonishment, as they were supposed to lead in maritime strategy and to possess some of the best men among their admirals."

It is clear that the effect of Montojo's crushing defeat is wearing off, even in Spain, and that the battle of Manila will assume secondary importance in ending the war. The Spanish Ambassador in London, de Rascon, expresses himself to the following effect:

The battle does not even modify in any degree the sovereignty of Spain over the Philippines. Dewey can not even reduce Manila. The captain-general has 30,000 seasoned troops, with which he certainly can repel invasion. As to the flying squadron, its commander shows wisdom in refusing to battle against a superior force, unless circumstances render a battle inevitable. It would be making things too easy for the United States to allow them always to meet opponents inferior in numbers and armament.

Yet there is a strong desire for peace in Spain, if peace can be obtained without surrender. Sagasta, complaining that "the Americans do not fight fair against even so much weaker an enemy as Spain, but carry on the war by inciting rebellion," acknowledges that Spain has little chance. *Lloyd's*, London, hopes the powers will soon step in to end the war. *The Handelsblad*, Amsterdam, believes that there is a considerable peace party in the United States, as it has become clear that not tens of thousands, but hundreds of thousands of men will be necessary to drive the Spaniards from Cuba. The cost of the war is great, thinks the paper; even the exports from the United States to Spain, which were \$15,000,000 in excess of the imports, count for something. *The Novoye Vremya*, St. Petersburg, fears that the time for intervention has not yet come. It says:

"It is easier to speak of intervention than to begin it. What power is to take the initiative? Europe is anxious to remain outside of the quarrel, and she is not to blame. Perhaps the belligerents will listen to reason when a decisive battle has taken place in the West Indies."

The same paper is displeased that the Americans, claiming to have begun the war for humanity's sake, think they have done something original, and forget that Russia fought for humanity and Christianity against the Turks on more than one occasion.

The rumor that intervention will eventually end the war nevertheless crops up everywhere. *The Monetary Times*, Toronto, says:

"The representatives of three of the powers, not including England, at Washington, have reminded President McKinley, through Secretary Day, that the President's message made the liberation of Cuba the sole object of the war, and that the bombardment of Cuban coast towns can only add to the distress of the natives, without furthering the avowed object of the war. The rights of European residents, it was added, must be respected; and there is a story that Germany is prepared to make an extravagant demand. Russia, Austria, and Germany are said to be drawing close together."

Life, London, says:

"It is more than doubtful if the intervention of America, even

if successful, will insure peace to unhappy Cuba. . . . If only on this ground, the powers should have intervened. Now, however, tho they have been too late to prevent the outbreak of hostilities, they can at least stand by and watch for the psychological moment when wisdom will dictate that without loss of dignity the two parties can be induced to hold their hands from further mischief. . . . The powers have also another point to consider—the fatal effect which the success of the Americans will have upon the future action of our transatlantic cousins. They have proved on several occasions of late very intractable in disputes which have arisen between themselves and European nations. But with a victorious fleet and flushed with success, no one can tell what will be their tone. From every point of view it has been unwise of the European powers not to have stopped the outbreak of war; it would be unwise still if they do not seize the first opportunity to intervene and prevent the mischief going any further."

Nobody suggests that intervention should come in the shape of pressure upon Spain to grant the demands of the United States, tho influential English papers, like *The Times*, assure Spain that "England will not pull the Spanish chestnuts out of the fire." *The Temps*, Paris, thinks the powers should interfere "because America disturbs the price of necessities." *The Speaker*, London, believes that the Americans will not readily come to terms, as their lust for empire has been aroused. That the United States will hold its own among the powers, the paper does not doubt. Whether the Spanish-speaking races likely to come under American rule will like it, is another matter. The paper says:

"As regards Cuba and Porto Rico, their admission as States must be indefinitely remote; but as territories they will present—only on a much greater scale—the same kind of problems as California presented at the close of the Mexican war, and New Mexico continues to present to this day. There will be a large disaffected element—unless it emigrates to South America—and more brigandage than there has ever been in the worst parts of the far West. But there will also be an inrush of American planters and traders; and we can trust Americans to put down disorder with a strong hand when they have a mind to. . . . That the Philippines would ever emancipate themselves from tutelage is inconceivable. . . . There are civilized natives, wild natives, and natives who govern themselves under Spanish supervision; and there are natives who refuse to be governed by Spain, and against whom she has had to wage costly and difficult wars. The half-breeds are ethnically peculiar, and likely to give endless trouble, and to feel—what they have never been made to feel by Spain—that they are a despised race. . . . American law and legal ideas will, we are afraid, rather tend to favor the rack-renting religious orders than otherwise; but it is hardly conceivable that the church will maintain its power or make good its claim on the revenues. If the Philippines are to be administered, as the Indian Bureau and the Freedmen's Bureau used to be, by office-seekers from the States, their future is full of trouble for the Union."

Despite all rumors to the contrary—given out by the press agencies much to the disgust of the German-American press—Germany will not interfere in favor of Spain, altho it is not impossible that she may intervene if she considers her own interests endangered. But wielders of the pen in Germany, with few exceptions, continue to assert that the people of the United States do not show themselves superior to the Spaniards, and do not manage their affairs better, considering the enormous resources of the Americans. *The Kladderadatsch* thinks if Spain and the United States could destroy each other the world would be benefited, as there would be so much corruption and hypocrisy less. *The Gegenwart*, Berlin, a very influential weekly, expresses itself as follows:

Europe watches, with folded arms, the vilest and most baseless war in history. No war has ever been more unjust. But even that could pass. But never has war or peace been decided upon in a more coarse and unworthy manner than in Congress. The modern financial dynasties of the world demand recognition and the legitimate monarchs do not resist the claim, because they read aright the signs of the times. But they protest against the enormously 'honest cheek' with which the Washington jobbers ac-

knowledge their desire to make money as the only motive of their actions. The European man can not stomach avarice pure and undiluted. The European powers have allowed much impudence to pass unnoticed—even the promulgation of that foolish Monroe doctrine—because America is so powerless. But if Europe's stately excellencies and crowned heads have it poked under their noses continually that, despite their millions of soldiers, they can not prevent the assumption of power equal to theirs by ex-pedlars and dealers in rabbit skins, these princes may arise in their wrath."

Yet nobody advocates help for Spain. "Spain," say nearly all the German papers, "deserves punishment for her colonial sins." But they assume that the hand which administers the chastisement is no cleaner than Spain's, and much less refined; and, with the exception of the mercantile and capitalist organs, they refuse to moderate their tone for fear of arousing animosity in the United States.

From the business point of view the war does not seem to be regarded as an unmitigated evil. Many Germans welcome closer business relations with Russia, and the *Kölnische Zeitung* asserts that at least one American trust, the Oil Trust, will lose its hold in Central Europe.

The temporary detention of the French steamer *Lafayette* has produced no bad impression in Europe, as our Administration released the ship very promptly. The French papers merely remark that the Americans were a little too hasty in their desire to make captures.—*Translations made for THE LITERARY DIGEST.*

SUMMARY OF WAR NEWS AS HEARD IN EUROPE.

May 7 to May 14.—The American accounts of the battle of Manila confirm the Spanish reports of the destruction of the Spanish fleet, and furnish the remarkable item that the Americans had only a few wounded and none killed—a curious instance of the luck of battles. The Americans are in possession of Cavite, and care for a large portion of the Spanish wounded. The Spanish losses are variously stated as between 400 and 1,000. Admiral Dewey has no forces with which to follow up his victory, and a blockade of the port of Manila is declared by the American Government. Reinforcements will be sent within a few days to Dewey. There is some talk of Spanish reinforcements, but in view of the difficulties of such an expedition it is doubted that Spain can assist her troops in the Philippines. It is thought that the Spaniards will make a fair stand against an army of invasion, as the insurgents will be of little use to the Americans. The United States Congress honors Dewey and votes substantial reward for the officers and men of his squadron.

The blockade of the Cuban coast is left to the smaller ships of Admiral Sampson's squadron, and to some auxiliary cruisers. Sampson proceeds to Puerto Rico, and bombards the town and forts of San Juan without previous warning. The American papers announce the utter destruction of the Spanish batteries and the capitulation of the city. Admiral Sampson reports that his three hours' bombardment did much damage, his own loss being slight—one killed and seven wounded. The governor of Puerto Rico reports that the damage was inconsiderable and the loss insignificant. As no attempt was made to land, and no surrender of the city was demanded, the Spaniards are at a loss to explain the aim of the bombardment. The governor is advised that reinforcements will be sent, and he is ordered to prepare for their reception; but the date of their departure from Spain is kept secret. There is no lack of war material in Puerto Rico, supplies intended for Cuba having gone to San Juan (*Correspondencia de España*).

The Spaniards report numerous attempts of the Americans to obtain a foothold on the Cuban coast, the most determined being made at Cienfuegos, where the American marines endeavored to establish themselves at the entrance of the harbor. The cannonade lasted eight hours. The Spaniards had eighteen men wounded. The Americans deny that an attempt to make a landing was made. They admit that attempts were made to cut the submarine cables: it is not quite clear whether these were crowned

with success or not. Two unarmored American cruisers, the *Morrill* and *Vicksburg*, arrived in Key West in a damaged condition. They had been too close to the Santa Clara batteries. An attempt is made to destroy the small gunboats in Cardenas, resulting in the repulse, with some damage, of the small American vessels which undertook the task. The torpedo-boat *Winslow* has to be towed home and loses five killed and a few wounded. The steamer *Gussie* arrives on the Cuban coast with a small detachment of American troops. Her mission is to supply the rebels with arms and ammunition, but the latter can not communicate with her.

There is an enormous quantity of unreliable news regarding the whereabouts of the Spanish flying squadron under Cervera. Ultimately it turns up at Martinique. With the exception of the torpedo-boat destroyer *Terror* all seem to be in good condition. Reports of battle at sea are almost daily published in the American papers, sometimes with particulars, but the opposing fleets have not encountered each other. Cervera cleans his boilers and takes in coal. Sampson replenishes his stock of ammunition, reduced by the bombardment of Puerto Rico. It appears now that the Spanish fleet went to the Canaries from the Cape Verdes, took in stores and left for the West Indies, making the whole voyage in remarkably fast time. The governors of the French and Dutch West Indian islands carry out the neutrality laws very strictly and impartially.

The French steamer *Lafayette* is brought up for attempting to enter Havana, but is promptly released by the American Government and allowed to proceed on her way. On leaving Havana she is full of refugees, who are hooted by the populace. Spanish gunboats reconnoitre in the Gulf of Mexico and capture a small yacht. Her passengers, not being Americans, are released. Active preparations are made in America for the invasion of Cuba. The United States is willing to end the war if Spain gives up Cuba, Puerto Rico, the Philippines, and the Canaries, and pays \$200,000,000 indemnity (*Daily News*). The Cuban autonomists protest against American rule. America's preparations do not warrant the assumption that the United States can speedily end the war. The commissariat is very defective. In New York State provisions are rotting in one place, and the troops suffer want in another. The National Guard can not be sent abroad until it has been better trained; there is much insubordination, especially in the New York regiments (*Handelsblad*). There is some talk of increasing the forces already under arms. Rear-Admiral Belknap creates a sensation by warning the United States Government to "prepare to meet the Kaiser."

THE SCARCITY OF BREADSTUFFS IN EUROPE.

MANY attribute the scarcity of breadstuffs in Europe to the Spanish-American war, which has raised the freight rates and enables speculators to "corner" wheat; others realize that we are living in lean years, harvests having been below the average in most countries for some time past. Italy seems to suffer most, the late riots there being undoubtedly hunger revolts. In Pavia, Livorno, Sesto-Florentino, and Milan (see LITERARY DIGEST, May 21), shops were plundered, public buildings damaged, and in the last-named place a thousand persons are said to have lost their lives in a single encounter with the troops. Socialists and Anarchists no doubt made use of the circumstances for their own purposes. The *Corriere della Sera*, Milan, says:

"The demonstrations had evidently been planned and prepared. The soldiers did not make use of their weapons until they were forced to do so. Children were sent to begin the trouble by hooting the troops, and a little boy even tried to pull the sword from an officer's hand. The women then joined in, and the men came last. They did not make much of a stand, however. . . . It is not easy to see how the present or any other Ministry could remedy an evil which is due entirely to economical causes."

The *Mattino* holds the municipal governments responsible, and says:

"There is too much corruption and office-hunting. As least 25 per cent. of the income of even small towns goes in salaries. Work that could be done by one person is divided among ten, and the officials are always relatives or friends of the mayor. If the

governors interfere, politics are brought into play, and the honest governor is sent out of the way to Sicily."

The Vienna *Freie Presse* explains that Italy, being thickly populated and poor, can not afford to maintain an army of corrupt politicians such as is fed by wealthier countries. In the opinion of calm observers the riots are not likely to hurt the monarchy. The *Journal des Débats*, Paris, sketches the situation to the following effect:

Thanks to the firmness of the Government, order has been restored and the rebellion will not spread. It requires a great deal of naïveté to believe that the position of the House of Savoy is endangered because there has been a sporadic proclamation of the republic. The revolutionaries of Lombardy have received a severe check, and are forced to hide on Swiss soil—if the Swiss allow it for any length of time.

Moreover, the population really sympathizes with the troops, and the rioters are very unpopular. Democratic institutions are rather under a cloud, and parliamentarism, as practised in Italy, has had many violent enemies for a long time past; to it are attributed the evils which beset the kingdom, and the politicians are made responsible for the fact that serious reforms are never carried out. It is not only in reactionary circles where dissatisfaction is vented.

The same paper suggests the remedy in the following words:

"We do not believe that any one thinks of the suppression of the parliamentary system, but there are many ways in which it might be modified. Able statesmen suggest the adoption of the German system, which confers upon the crown the power to choose its ministers, and renders it independent of parliament. This idea is certainly in the air, and it is gaining strength. . . . Recent events may hasten its realization."

The *Westminster Gazette*, London, says:

"Any speculator in a distant country who wickedly corners a necessary of life, and enriches himself at the expense of the poor of the world, may threaten their entire social system. The speculator gets scot-free with his millions, but by raising the price of bread he may have made a dozen cities run with blood, and even brought apparently strong government to the ground. It is the habit of the mass of people to discover that their governments are stupid or oppressive or corrupt only when the cupboard grows bare or when the loaf rises to twice its ordinary price. Their government may have nothing at all to do with the causes which have produced this result, but the crisis suddenly brings them to the knowledge of all the weak spots in a régime which they had accepted without question so long as there was a margin of food. . . . Fiscal reform unfortunately can never, or hardly ever, be obtained except on threat of starvation or some other acute crisis. It was the Irish famine which opened our ports; it will be the threat of famine or the fear of continued disturbance which will abolish the octroi."

Most European papers agree that it is not the national duty on grain which causes the famine, but the local tariff raised to support the corrupt politicians. The Roman correspondent of the London *Daily News* thinks the king should side with the people against the Parliament, as the army is with him.

Similar riots have taken place in Spain, tho not quite so serious. Everywhere the revolutionaries seem to have endeavored to make political capital out of the economical situation. In Germany the Socialists draw the lesson that starvation is the result of a nation's attempt to make itself respected. The *Vorwärts*, Berlin, argues to the following effect:

The troubles in Italy will give us Socialists a chance to agitate against the Agrarian landowners and the Protectionists. These riots also prove that, in case of a great war, the people must starve in order to feed the soldiers. The only salvation for Germany is to disarm, so that she is not tempted to make war. For this reason the Socialists must endeavor to prevent the storing of grain, which is already spoken of. This, however, would throw us back into the barbarism of Egypt. If the Government has sufficient means to feed the people, it will be impossible to rouse the latter to a sense of their slavery. It is very unfortunate that the German Government has been allowed to strengthen the navy, for this encourages the ruling classes to oppose maritime nations.

It is, however, very doubtful that either England or Germany or France will be seriously inconvenienced during the present year, as these countries have a certain amount of prosperity to help them tide over the scarcity. They can, moreover, draw a fairly good supply from Russia. In Russia the famine demands many victims, but in districts which can not be easily reached. In the provinces from which Western Europe usually obtains its supplies the harvests have been fairly good.—*Translations made for THE LITERARY DIGEST.*

MISCELLANEOUS.

TOSCANELLI'S SHARE IN THE DISCOVERY OF THE NEW WORLD.

THE close study of original documents connected with the discoveries of Columbus has convinced Professor de Lollis, an Italian student of the subject, that while Columbus actually discovered America, the existence of this continent and the way of reaching it were first suggested to him by the Florentine, Paolo Toscanelli dal Pozzo. Toscanelli was a doctor of medicine, which is the excuse for an interesting note on the subject in *The British Medical Journal* (April 16). Says that paper:

"Toscanelli's name has indeed been mentioned as having confirmed Columbus in his ideas as to the existence of a great undiscovered continent, and when the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America was celebrated in 1892 he came in incidentally for a small share of glory; neither on this, nor on the other side of the Atlantic, however, did his name appear in the program of the official demonstrations. This omission is now to be rectified to some extent. On April 17, the fourth centenary of Toscanelli and Amerigo Vespucci is to be celebrated with much pomp and circumstance at Florence. Toscanelli deserves to be remembered, for it is clear from the evidence produced by de Lollis that without Toscanelli's instructions Columbus would never have gone to seek the East by way of the West, and consequently would not have stumbled on the discovery of America. Columbus went in 1476 to Portugal, where at that time the scheme of transatlantic route had already attracted the attention of the king and his geographers. The moving spirit was Fernan Martins, Canon of Lisbon—himself also a doctor of physic, who had lived some time in Italy, where he had made the acquaintance of Toscanelli. At the suggestion of Martins, Toscanelli wrote to the King of Portugal a letter dated June 25, 1474, in which he refers to the scheme discussed between them at a previous time for reaching the 'land of spices' by a shorter road along the coast of Guinea. In this letter he enclosed a planisphere illustrating his conception of the world as a sphere, and showing how it could be circumnavigated. Columbus placed himself in communication with Toscanelli, sometime between September, 1479, and August, 1481. He asked the Florentine physician for information, and Toscanelli, in his reply, after referring with approbation to his wish to reach the land where spices are produced, refers him for an answer to his question to the letter and the map which he had sent in 1474 to Fernan Martins. Columbus wrote to him a second time, and in his reply Toscanelli used the following expression: 'I perceive your great and magnificent wish to reach the East by the West in the manner shown by the map which I sent you'; and he expressed his satisfaction that the map had been understood, and that the project referred to was looked upon as not only possible, but certain. Columbus copied with his own hand Toscanelli's letter, and he quotes it in the log of his first voyage, and again in that of his fourth and last. He admits that from this passage he had drawn the arguments which decided the King of Spain to fit out the expedition. Columbus also took Toscanelli's map with him on his voyage. Toscanelli died in 1482, and thus had not the gratification of seeing how the inspiration which he gave bore fruit, tho in a way which he had not foreseen. It is an interesting fact that two doctors of medicine should be so closely associated with the discovery which made the name of Columbus immortal."

Spanish Pride.—Two qualities, according to the London *Spectator*, and only two, differentiate Spaniards from other Southern races of Europe—pride and callousness. From the union of the two comes the Spaniard's reputation in all ages for cruelty. He hurts, not for the mere sake of hurting, but because one who has injured his pride must be entirely crushed before the Spaniard is satisfied. *The Spectator* continues as follows:

"A personal dignity, quite apart from mere vanity, appears to be as essential to him as freedom to the Anglo-Saxon or order to

the German. This feeling shows itself in his dress, in his bearing, in his language, in all his acts, public and private. He can not cringe, he can not brook a slight, he can not suppress himself when self-effacement would be convenient. He must be acknowledged as gentleman on all occasions as the condition without which business can not be done, and he usually adds to the word gentleman the word Spaniard. He is a gentleman of Spain, or in his own eyes he ceases to be anything. Our own Highlander has precisely the same quality in the same degree, and till a very recent period he also dressed the part. There is something very impressive about this feeling, particularly when it leads, as it often does, to the endurance of immense risks, and it is a little perplexing to know from what root it ultimately springs. It is a matter of race some say; but there is no kinship of race between the Highlander, who is Celt, a little crossed with Norseman, and the Iberian, who comes probably from the same stock as the Mongol—it remains pure in Biscay—deeply crossed with the Visigoth and with a trace, varying in quantity in each province, of Semitic blood. It is his history, say others; but tho the Spaniard has a great history, we do not know that it is greater than that of the Frenchman or the Englishman, while it is not so great as that of the Italian. It does not come from pride of pedigree, for the common Spaniard does not know his pedigree any more than his rival in any other nation; and it does not come from pride of career, for it shows it just as much, perhaps more, if he has done nothing but loaf.

"Our own theory is that it springs from soldiership; that the Spaniard, like the Highlander, after fighting perpetually for centuries past, has got the soldier characteristics fairly into his blood—the love of appearing dignified, the tendency to indolence when off duty, the instinctive touchiness about grade, the personal pride as of the man who faces death while other men only live. Certainly the Spaniard has it, and it makes him on occasion one of the most to be respected, and on occasion one of the most irrational, of God's creatures. He seems when his pride is moved to act on emotion merely, and will put aside the greatest temptation, or act with the greatest folly, according to the provocation."

MEN AND WOMEN WITH HORNS.

AMONG the "freaks" exhibited by traveling shows in this country, seldom or never is there seen such a thing as a human being with horns like a beast. Yet it appears from an article in the *Revue des Revues* (Paris, March 15) that men and women with horns have been by no means so rare as might be supposed. The author of the article (M. Jean Finot) describes a number of authentic cases and gives portraits of ten persons who bore those excrescences. He begins by observing:

"This phenomenon is more frequently met with than is generally believed. Such is the force of prejudice that nearly all of us would rather have two noses or four feet rather than the emblem which in bygone ages was considered the supreme ornament of man. It is in this view that horns are attributed to gods and heroes. Alexander the Great, when he proclaimed himself the son of Jupiter, gave orders that on the coins which should be struck thereafter he should be represented bearing horns. Michelangelo, when he made a statue of Moses, depicted the Hebrew legislator with horns, as a sign of manly strength. The kings of India were wont to have horns attached to their helmets, as a mark of their supreme rank. The great gods, like Jupiter, Pan, and even Astarte, the goddess of the Syrians, were represented with horns as an indication of their mighty power. In the course of time the horn lost its significance and ceased to be regarded as a mark of splendor, force, and dignity.

"M. Villeneuve has written a book in which he describes seventy-one cases of horned human beings. Fifty per cent. of these occurred in the cases of men who had the horns, like animals, on the forehead. The statistics show that more women are horned than men, and the horns of the women are usually longer than those of men. In the British Museum is the largest specimen of a human horn. It is eight inches in length, and ornamented the head of a noble Englishman. In the seventeenth century a Mrs. Allen, of Leicestershire, England, had a pair of horns. So far from being ashamed, she was proud of them, and

wore them as an ornament all her life. They attracted to her, it is told, numerous admirers. Another Englishwoman of the same town, known as the beautiful Mary Davis, had a pair of horns which were regarded as an addition to her charms. She had them cut off four times, but they grew again. One growth was presented to King Henry IV. of France.

"M. Lamprey and other travelers have told of people who number among them numerous specimens of horned men and women. These people are found in certain regions of western Africa. In 1887, M. Lamprey relates, he found in the African territory of Ganim several imposing types of horned men and women. One of these was a majestic-looking negro with two horns, which in his case sprang one from each side of the nose.

"A Mexican named Rodriguez is described as having a horn on the side of his head, about seven inches long, with three branches like the horn of a stag.

"Are horns hereditary? It would appear from the observations of physicians who have carefully studied these excrescences that they are sometimes hereditary, tho not as a general rule. M. Dublanc relates in the *Journal de Pharmacie* for 1830 that the Medical Society sent him for analysis three human horns, of which one was cut from the head of the grandfather of the person who bore the other two.

"Animals that are not usually horned sometimes, like the human race, put forth unexpectedly a decoration of this kind. There are well-authenticated cases of horns being found on dogs, horses, and hares, and there is even one case related by a trustworthy physician of their being seen on a cat.

"What is the nature of this horn formation? According to Malpighi, whose opinion is entitled to great weight, horns are the nervous prolongation of the skin. Bieschu, another judge not to be despised, says they are due to a morbid secretion. Without entering into details on this subject, it may be said that it is agreed that in their essence human horns are analogous, in their substance, to that of the horns of animals, to human nails and the claws of beasts. Whatever it may be, these excrescences do not threaten either the health or the life of those who have them."—Translated for THE LITERARY DIGEST.

IDENTIFYING AT LAST THE MAN IN THE IRON MASK.

ALL general readers have met with speculations concerning the prisoner of the Bastille who was compelled to wear an "iron mask," and, as has been supposed, was kept in solitary confinement, no one save the prison officers being allowed to hold any communication with him. He has been the hero of romances innumerable. Grave historians have exercised their ingenuity in trying to elucidate the mystery about the prisoner. Voltaire, the first writer of note to give form and life to the vague traditions about the masked prisoner, hints in his history, "The Age of Louis XIV.," written fifty years after the death of the masked man, that he was a person of high rank. The historian graphically describes how this mysterious being, while at the island Sainte Marguerite, where he was imprisoned before being sent to the Bastille, endeavored to open communication with the outer world by throwing out on the shore of the island, from the grated window of his gloomy dungeon, a piece of fine linen and a silver plate, on which he had traced some strange characters to reveal a horrible tale of misfortune. It has been claimed that he was an illegitimate son of Anne of Austria, the mother of Louis XIV.; also a twin brother of Louis XIV., put out of the way by Cardinal Richelieu to avoid the ills of a disputed succession. Others have labored to show that he was a bastard of Louis XIV., or the English Duke of Monmouth, or a son of the Protector Cromwell, as well as various other persons.

M. Funck-Brentano, who has attained reputation as an accurate and reliable historian, is the librarian of the library of the Arsenal at Paris. This library contains an enormous number of documents relating to the ancient history of France, and among these is a great mass of papers relating to the Bastille. In his researches among these papers, he has discovered some which establish beyond a peradventure who the Man in the Iron Mask was. The result of his researches he gives in the *Revue Bleue* (Paris, March 26). Among the papers in the library is the register of Du Junca, who, under the title of Lieutenant of the King,

was the chief turnkey of the Bastille during the whole time the Mask was incarcerated there, which, according to the register, began on September 18, 1698, and ended on November 19, 1703, when the unfortunate prisoner died—about five years. In the register is noted each day by Du Junca all details relative to the prisoners incarcerated. The register declares that the man wore a mask, not of iron, but of black velvet. It may be mentioned, in passing, that it has been indisputably proved by other unimpeachable documents that it was no uncommon practise, especially in the reign of Louis XIV., to isolate human beings and keep them immured with their features carefully hidden, and that the victims were persons of all conditions.

It has been constantly asserted that the Mask was kept in a room by himself, and not allowed to see or be seen by the other prisoners. This is positively disproved by Du Junca's register. The Bastille could accommodate but forty-two prisoners in separate rooms. Whenever the number confined was larger than that, it was necessary to put two or more in the same room. In April, 1701, a prisoner was received when the place was more than full. This prisoner, named Maranville, the register records, was put in the room with the Mask, who for some time previous had shared his room with a man named Thirmont. Thus there were three of them in the same room. M. Funck-Brentano is able to establish certainly who these two men were. Maranville was a writer of wretched novels, a beggar in purse and in habit, who was imprisoned for speaking disrespectfully of the French authorities and reviling them for certain proceedings they had taken against the Dutch.

Thirmont was a lacquey, who was accused of impious acts and attacks on the religion of the state. He afterward lost his reason and was put in a madhouse. So little consideration, therefore, was paid to the Mask that there were put in the same room with him a miserable novelist and a lacquey. At the time these two men were locked up with the Mask the register shows that there were at the Bastille other prisoners who were kept rigorously isolated, notwithstanding that the prison was so full. It is, therefore, certain that the isolation of these other prisoners was considered of much greater consequence than the isolation of the Mask.

The register shows that the masked man died on the 19th of November, 1703, and was buried in the church of St. Paul in Paris the next day. The mortuary register of that church was burned in the conflagration of 1871, but a facsimile of the entry of the burial of the Mask was published in a book written by Marius Topin and published in 1869. In the mortuary register the name of the masked man appears in full, and it was Hercules Antoine Mattioli. Who he was is very well known. He was the secretary of the Duke of Mantua. Louis XIV., angered by the duplicity of the man in connection with negotiations relative to the acquisition of Casal, had him seized on Italian soil, in a time of profound peace, in violation of international law, and brought to Paris, where he was kept in several prisons and finally in the Bastille. He was kept masked in order that he might not be reclaimed by the Duke of Mantua.

M. Funck-Brentano does not claim that he is the first to maintain that Mattioli was the Man in the Iron Mask. It has been maintained by several writers before him. In one of the latest works on the subject, M. Jung, a French staff officer, after diligent investigations claims that Mattioli was not the Mask, who was a criminal that probably played a prominent part in one of the numerous poisoning plots which disgraced the reign of Louis XIV. Jung identifies him with a Lorraine gentleman who seems to have belonged to a numerous band of conspirators against the life of the king.

As late as this year there appeared a book written by the president of the Academy of Sciences, Arts, and Belles-Lettres of Bordeaux, in which the author claims to have proved that the Man in the Iron Mask was Molière.

M. Funck-Brentano considers the question now finally settled, and concludes with these reflections:

"What a lesson in modesty for historians! The writers who have dealt with this question had under their eyes the entry in the register of the church of St. Paul, where is given the name of the prisoner, in full, with all the letters. They have had the register of Du Junca, in which could be found the facts here narrated; all of which has not prevented their filling these books with the most extraordinary discussions."—Translated for THE LITERARY DIGEST.

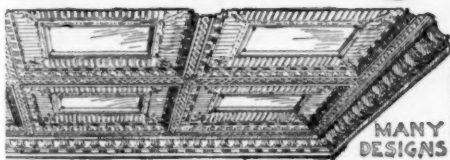
BUSINESS SITUATION.

"This nation faces war with reviving volume of business," says *Dun's Review*. Firm and steady markets, with a stir in the outfitting trades owing to the concentration and equipment of large bodies of troops, have been features of the week's business. Foreign exports were about \$2,000,000, or 20 per cent. larger than last year. Unfavorable weather conditions, unusually long-continued rains in the North and East, and dryness in the South and West, have somewhat retarded distribution. Failures numbered 231, an increase of 20 over the week before, but 26 less than during the corresponding week last year.

Bank Clearings Contract.—"The contraction in bank clearings usual at this time of year is reflected in a total for the week of \$1,188,828,000, 10 per cent. smaller than last week, but 30 per cent. larger than in the corresponding week of last year and of 1896, 45 per cent. larger than 1895, 67 per cent. larger than 1894, 3.7 per cent. larger than 1892, while as compared with 1890 the decrease is only about 3 per cent."—*Bradstreet's*, May 28.

The Iron Market.—"Starting this month with the greatest consumption ever known, the iron industry has made surprising progress in new orders, which reached about 100,000 tons in bars alone, over 50,000 having been placed at Chicago and 15,000 at Wheeling, mainly resulting from the extraordinary demand for agricultural implements. Heavy contracts for structural work, including some from New York which have depended on action of the city government, amount during the week to at least 15,000 tons, with others reported at many Western cities. Plate contracts, outside of the heavy demand for the Government, are very large, and include 5,600 tons for shipyards in Glasgow and Belfast. Many structural and bridge contracts at the West are pending, with probability of large orders during the coming week."—*Dun's Review*, May 28.

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The Cereals.—"Cereal exports still continue unprecedentedly heavy, wheat shipments for the week aggregating 4,309,133 bushels, against 4,064,000 bushels last week, 2,081,000 bushels in this week a year ago, 2,064,000 bushels in 1896, and 2,426,000 bushels in 1895. Corn exports are among the largest on record, aggregating 6,164,456 bushels this week, against 5,550,000 bushels last week, 2,185,000 bushels this week a year ago, 1,720,000 bushels in 1896, 1,040,000 bushels in 1895, and 812,000 bushels in 1894."—*Bradstreet's*, May 28.

Wool and the Textiles.—"A better demand appears for textile goods, with slight advance in print-cloths and a substantial gain in sales of staples. . . . The sales during the week having been only 3,748,100 pounds, of which 2,489,100 were domestic, against 6,842,400 a year ago and 4,211,000 in the same week of 1892. The manufacturers are largely supplied with materials, altho some who have heavy government contracts are obliged to buy different grades of wool than those they have in hand. Activity in the market is prevented by the fact that Western holders almost universally believe in higher prices than can yet be realized in Eastern markets, so that purchasing is very light. About 28 cents is obtained for Ohio XX and 29 cents for combing wool, but the mills are all pushed with orders, particularly on the grade of goods required by the Government, and there is every indication of a large business to come."—*Dun's Review*, May 28.

Canadian Trade.—"Weather conditions and a holiday have checked business in the Dominion of Canada, but trade is reported good in nearly all lines. Toronto reports a large volume of business in dry-goods and heavy sales of American prints. The Klondike demand, however, is materially less active. A heavy business is looked for in sugar, as the result of large crops of small fruits and apples. Wheat-crop prospects in Winnipeg and Ontario are reported flattering. Montreal reports the shoe manufacturers busy, dry-goods, groceries, and liquors especially active, and trade good in nearly all lines. Warmer weather has helped the distribution of summer goods at Halifax. Exports of lobsters to the United States are 100 per cent. larger than last year. Victoria reports Alaskan transportation business as busy, but the rush is not nearly so great as earlier in the season. Business failures in the Dominion of Canada this week number 18, only one half those of last week and compare with 20 in this week a year ago, 25 in 1896, and 36 in the corresponding weeks of 1895 and 1894. Canadian bank clearings aggregate \$21,448,000, 15 per cent. smaller than last week, but 24 per cent. larger than in this week a year ago."—*Bradstreet's*, May 28.

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PERSONALS.

THE announcement that Sir Julian Pauncefote, for the past ten years British ambassador at Washington, is to be retired, has brought out a number of anecdotes about him. A Washington clubman tells this one:

He (Pauncefote) was very fond of Secretary of State Gresham, and spent many an hour in the private office of the latter listening to Gresham's Western stories, for as a story-teller the Secretary was almost a second Lincoln. During one of these visits the representatives of other countries called, and waited in the diplomatic room, as it was diplomat day at the State Department. Mr. Kenesaw Landis, Gresham's private secretary, was the only one who had the privilege of reminding the Secretary of State of his duties. He saw the various representatives waiting, and, finally, he called on the Secretary and reminded him of the day and the visitors.

The Secretary was stretched on a sofa. He was smoking and telling stories to Sir Julian, who sat close by and thereby became, unconsciously to the Secretary, the ash receiver for the latter's cigar. The Secretary said in reply to Landis:

"All right, Kenesaw, hold them until I finish this story to Mr. Pauncefote."

Sir Julian rather liked the American Secretary to call him "Mr." When he and the Secretary went into the diplomatic room together the ambassadorial trousers were white with the ashes of Gresham's cigar.

MAJ.-GEN. WESLEY MERRITT, who has been selected to command the United States Army in the Philippine Islands and to be military governor of the new addition to our national domain, is one of our most distinguished military chieftains of this generation. Altho a very young man when he enlisted in the Civil War, he won high honors at Gettysburg, Five Forks, Winchester, and Cold Harbor, as well as many other battles of equal importance. After the rebellion was over he was sent to the far West, and there he won fresh honors by

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pluck and skill in fighting the Indians. Up to the present time he has been tried in every department of military service and never found wanting. It is announced that he is to be married to a young Chicago girl as soon as he returns from the East.

THE new Assistant Secretary of the Navy, who has been appointed to fill Mr. Roosevelt's place, is Charles H. Allen, of Massachusetts. Mr. Allen is an Amherst graduate and a man of considerable political experience, having represented his State in Congress and been a state senator. He has no naval experience, so that he will probably be in charge of the routine work of the department, such as the repairs of ships, navy-yards, and stations, etc. Mr. Allen is a close friend of Secretary Long, and of late years has been in mercantile business.

Current Events.

Monday, May 23.

The first California volunteers embark at San Francisco for Manila. . . . The British steamer *Ardanmohr* is seized on suspicion of attempting to run the Havana blockade, but is soon released. . . . The annual meeting of the American Congregational Society is held in Boston. . . . The Presbyterian General Assembly dismisses the Herman *Warszawiak* appeal. . . . Leaders of the New York City Republican organization discuss the advisability of asking Governor Black to remove Mayor Van Wyck for his course in the police board matter. . . . Gen. Henry R. Jackson, ex-Minister to Austria and to Mexico, dies at Savannah. . . . United States Supreme Court decides that convictions under the oleomargarin laws of Pennsylvania and New Hampshire are invalid, thus holding the laws unconstitutional. . . . Congress—Senate: Messrs. Chilton, Lodge, and Turley make speeches on the war revenue bill. . . . The President nominates W. W. Rockhill, now minister and consul-general to Greece, Rumania, and Servia, to be minister alone. Spain largely increases her defenses at Gibraltar. . . . Gladstone's body lies in state in the Hawarden church. . . . The second trial of Emile Zola is begun at Versailles. . . . Sir John Gilbert, the Irish historian, is dead.

Tuesday, May 24.

The Navy Department receives another despatch from Admiral Dewey dated May 20, in which he declares he is still holding his own at Manila. . . . It is announced that the two cables from Santiago de Cuba to Kingston, Jamaica, were cut on May 18. . . . It is reported that the *Cramps* of Philadelphia and a large English ship-building company have been consolidated. . . . The Missouri supreme court has declared the St. Louis police pension law unconstitutional. . . . Congress—Senate: Messrs. Frye, Platt of Connecticut, and Lindsay speak against the corporation-tax feature of the war revenue bill. House: Bills for the organization of a navy hospital corps, to authorize the appointment of a mission to allot lands in the Uintah Indian reservation in Utah, and several minor measures are passed. The Duke of Almodovar del Rio becomes

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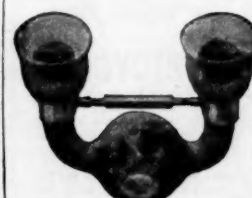
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Spanish Foreign Minister in place of Señor Castillo, who declines to serve. . . . The Minister of Finance says that a twenty per cent. general increase in taxation is necessary. . . . The military authorities in Sierra Leone are guarding the American missionaries, several of whom were murdered by the natives not long ago.

Wednesday, May 25.

President McKinley issues a call for 75,000 more volunteers. . . . The battle-ship *Oregon* arrives at Jupiter Inlet, Fla. . . . Twenty-five hundred men leave San Francisco for Manila. . . . The first pension voucher of the war with Spain is issued at Chicago. . . . Congress—Senate: The pension deficiency bill appropriating \$9,000,000 is passed. . . . The discussion on the war revenue bill is continued. House: The bill granting public lands to New Mexico is passed.

Official despatches to Madrid confirm the report that Admiral Cervera's fleet is blocked up in Santiago harbor. . . . The body of Mr. Gladstone is taken to London. . . . It is reported that the Lieutenant in command of the Spanish gunboat *Callao*, recently captured at Manila, has been court-martialed for cowardice and shot, and also that Admiral Montojo is being tried for the same offense.

Thursday, May 26.

The *Oregon* arrives at Key West in excellent

condition, having met no Spanish ships on her voyage. . . . The Government, through the Secretary of State, formally accepts the services of the *Red Cross*. . . . The directors of the Trans-Mississippi Exposition, at Omaha, decide to keep open on Sunday from 1 to 10 P.M., to prohibit the sale of liquors on the grounds, and to provide for the holding of concerts and religious services on Sunday afternoons. . . . Congress—Senate: Messrs. White and Teller discuss the war-revenue bill. House: The Senate amendments to the pension deficiency bill are concurred in.

Madrid is reported on the verge of revolution. . . . Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria is said to have advised the Queen Regent to flee. . . . Martial law is proclaimed throughout the Canary Islands. . . . In a collision in the Indian Ocean between the steamers *Mecca* and *Lindula*, fifty-three persons are drowned.

Friday, May 27.

General Merritt arrives at San Francisco and takes charge of the Manila expedition. . . . Admiral Sampson's fleet is reported off Matanzas. . . . The British consul at Havana telegraphs to the State Department that the exchange of two American newspaper correspondents, Thrall and Jones, for four of the Spanish prisoners captured on the *Argonauta* was effected at noon. . . . Dr. Charles A. Briggs is ordained a deacon in the Episcopal Church. . . . The Presbyterian General Assembly decides the McGiffert heresy case by directing the professor to reconcile his views with those of the church or withdraw from the Presbyterian ministry. . . . Congress—Senate: Messrs. Gorman, Teller, Cockrell, and Nelson discuss the war-revenue bill. Two amendments providing for the annexation of Hawaii are offered to the bill. The President nominates twenty-eight brigadier-generals, among them being Gen. John A. Wyle, Pennsylvania, and Col. Fred D. Grant, New York. House: The Senate resolution voting a sword to Admiral Dewey and medals to his men is passed unanimously. . . . The bill amending the internal-revenue laws is passed.

A London despatch says that Spain is very anxious for peace, and is inviting the good offices of the powers to secure it. . . . The report that the commander of the Spanish gunboat *Callao* had been shot for cowardice is denied. . . . The American mission at Tung-Chou, China, is looted by a mob, but it is believed that no one is injured. . . . The report that the American cruiser *Baltimore* has been blown up at Manila is denied.

Saturday, May 28.

President McKinley reviews 12,000 volunteers at Camp Alger, Va. . . . The Presbyterian General Assembly adjourns to meet next May in Minneapolis. . . . The Socialist Labor Party of Pennsylvania nominates J. Mahlon Barnes for governor. . . . The cruiser *Columbia* is run into by the British steamer *Foscolia* and a large hole stove in her side; the *Foscolia* founders. . . . The governor of Mississippi appoints Congressman Wm. V. A. Sullivan, United States Senator to succeed the late Senator Walthall. . . . The auxiliary cruiser *St. Louis* arrives at this city. . . . Congress—Senate: The President nominates ex-Senator Mathew C. Butler, of South Carolina, and James K. Watris, of Texas, to be major-generals; Nelson Cole, of Missouri, and ex-Governor Wm. C. Oates, of Alabama, to be brigadier-generals of volunteers; ex-Senator Butler's nomination is confirmed at once. . . . The appointment of C. A. Leland, of Ohio, to be associate justice of the supreme court of New Mexico is confirmed. . . . The corporation tax amendment to the war-revenue bill is laid on the table. Gladstone is buried in Westminster Abbey. . . . The Italian cabinet resigns. . . . It is officially announced in Madrid that the Spanish reserve squadron has left Cadiz.

Sunday, May 29.

Oscar S. Straus declares that he has accepted the mission to Turkey in place of Dr. J. B. Angel, resigned. . . . General Merritt receives orders giving him almost complete discretion in the government of the Philippines. . . . A Paris newspaper publishes news of an alleged battle between Sampson and Cervera, in which "two American war-ships were sunk and one captured and Admiral Sampson killed"; this, however, is received even by the Spaniards with suspicion. . . . American and Cuban official despatches still indicate that Cervera is in Santiago harbor. The Spaniards mine and obstruct Cardenas harbor. . . . The Spanish cabinet decides to prohibit the export of silver coins. . . . It is reported that the Philippine insurgents have offered their aid to Admiral Dewey.

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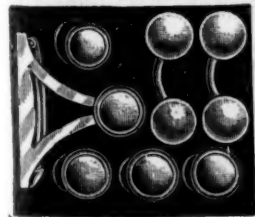
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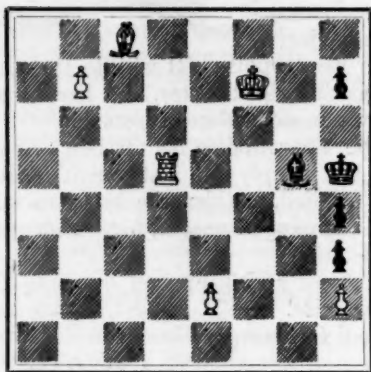
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[All communications for this Department should be addressed: "Chess Editor, LITERARY DIGEST."]

Problem 288.

BY OTTO WURZBURG.

Black—Five Pieces.



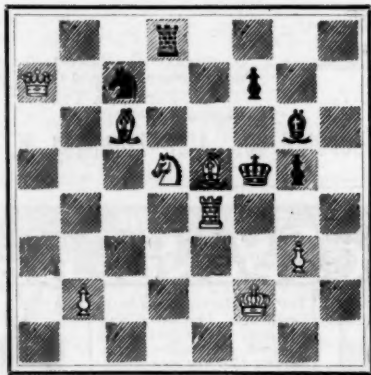
White—Six Pieces.

White mates in three moves.

Problem 289.

BY A. ROEGNER.

Black—Six Pieces.



White—Eight Pieces.

White mates in three moves.

Solution of Problems.

No. 282.

Key-move, R—Kt 3.

Solution received from M. W. H., University of Virginia; H. W. Barry, Boston; the Rev. I. W. Bieber, Bethlehem, Pa.; F. H. Johnston, Elizabeth City, N. C.; C. Q. De France, Lincoln, Neb.; C. W. C., Pittsburg; G. Patterson, Winnipeg, Man.; W. G. Donnan, Independence, Ia.; G. A. L., Monongahela, Pa.; Z. T. Merrill, Milwaukee; R. G. Fitzgerald, Dayton, O.; R. M. Campbell, Cameron, Tex.; C. R. Oldham, Moundsville, W. Va.; Dr. W. S. Frick, Philadelphia; H. V. Fitch, Omaha; E. E. Whitford, Factoryville, Pa.; F. S. Ferguson, Birmingham, Ala.; R. L. P., Sing Sing, N. Y.; John Jewell, Columbus, Ind.; J. P. C., Chattanooga, Tenn.

Comments: "Ingenious, but one of the author's easiest"—M. W. H.; "Illustrates one of the oldest and simplest ideas in the problem-art"—H. W. B. "Such well-made Laws Show up no flaws."—I. W.

B.; "Capital. Full of harmonious variety"—F. H. J.; "A pretty sacrifice and well balanced"—C. Q. De F.; "Fairly good"—C. W. C.; "Very simple"—G. P.; "A good composition"—W. G. D.; "Very clever"—F. S. F.; "Very simple"—R. L. P.

We have received two "tries"; R x Kt, and P—B 7. Black's answer K x Kt stops both, for B—Q 6 is not mate, as Black plays K—K 6.

No. 283.

B—Kt 6	Q—B 5	Q—K 6 mate.
1. K x Kt	2. K x P	3. Q—Q B 5, mate
.....
2. P—K 3	3. Q—K 7 mate
.....
3. P—K 4	3. Q—B 5, mate
.....
1. P x Kt	2. K—K 5	3. Q—Q B 5, mate
.....
2. Q—B 2
1. P—K 3	2. K any	3.

Solution received from M. W. H., H. W. Barry, I. W. Bieber, F. H. Johnston, C. W. C., C. Q. De France, C. Patterson, W. G. Donnan, G. A. L., Z. T. Merrill, R. G. Fitzgerald, R. M. Campbell, C. R. Oldham, Dr. Frick, H. V. Fitch, John Jewell.

Comments: "Ingenious, but not difficult"—M. W. H.; "Well worthy a place in your excellent Chess-column"—M. W. B.; "A capital composition"—I. W. B.; "Somewhat hard to solve"—F. H. J.; "A neat and interesting problem"—C. W. C.; "Key-move not hard to find, yet the mates are difficult"—C. Q. De F.; "Nothing abstruse in this"—G. P.

R. G. Fitzgerald sends solution of 278, 279, 280, 281. Mrs. S. W. G., Philadelphia, was successful with 279, and P. Hubbard, Cambridge, Mass., got 280.

Problem 285, by Meyer, was published some time ago in these columns. It is No. 255, and was duplicated by mistake.

CONCERNING 269.

Mr. Barry acknowledges that his analysis does not prove that 269 has no second solution: Q—Q B 8. He, inferentially, pays a high compliment to our Chess-Department when he says: "In the future, I shall look twice before venturing to contradict THE LITERARY DIGEST."

The Expert and the Problemist.

A good story is told in *Der Schachfreund*, Berlin, of a Chess-expert who was in the habit of giving any player the odds of all the moves he could make in five minutes. One day a stranger undertook to play the Master with the five minutes' odds. The stranger made sixteen moves in less than the time given, and used up the rest of his time by moving his King back and forth. When the five minutes were up, the expert looked at the position, but did not attempt to play. "What do you want?" he said. "I am mated in two, whatever move I make." The stranger was a distinguished problemist, and the moves he made were as follows:

1 P—Q R 4	5 P—Q 4	9 Q R—R 3	13 P—K Kt 3
2 Kt—Q R 3	6 Kt—Q 2	10 Kt—K 4	14 B—R 3
3 P—R 4	7 K R—R 3	11 Q—Q 2	15 Q—B 4
4 Kt—B 3	8 Q Kt—B 4	12 K R—KB 3	16 Q R—K 3

The Correspondence Tourney.

Players having unfinished games seem to have put a wrong construction on our words concerning these games. We do not desire the score of unfinished games. What we wanted was information concerning the number of unfinished games and the progress made, in order to see if it were possible to start any of the games in the Finals.

SIXTY-FIFTH GAME.

Ruy Lopez.

N. HALD, F. DE ARMAN, Donnebrog, Franklin, Pa. Neb.	N. HALD, F. DE ARMAN, White. Black.	N. HALD, F. DE ARMAN, White. Black.
1 P—K 4	1 P—K 4	21 B x R
2 Kt—K B 3	2 Kt—Q B 3	22 R x P
3 B—Kt 5	3 Kt—B 3	23 R—Q sq
4 Castles	4 Kt x P	24 B—B 4
5 P—Q 4	5 P—Q R 3	25 P—Kt 4
6 B—R 4	6 P—Q Kt 4	26 R (Kt 2)—P—B 3
7 B—Kt 3	7 P—Q 4 (a)	27 B—K 3
8 P x P	8 B—K 3	28 K—B sq (h)
9 P—B 3	9 B—K 2	29 R—Q 3
10 Q Kt—Q 2	10 Kt x Kt (c)	30 K—K 2
(b)	(b)	31 P—K R 3
11 Q x Kt	11 Q—Q 2	32 P—B 3
12 K R—K sq	12 Castles	33 P—B 4
13 B—B 2	13 K R—Q sq (d)	34 R—K B sq
14 Q—Q 3	14 P—Kt 3	35 B x P
15 Kt—Kt 5	15 P—Q 5 (e)	36 R x Kt ch
16 Kt x B	16 P x Kt (f)	37 R x Q Kt P
17 B—R 6	17 P x P (g)	38 R—Kt 6
18 Q x Q	18 R x Q	39 R x R P
19 B—K 4	19 P x P	40 R x R ch
20 Q R—Kt sq	20 R—K 4	41 P—Q R 4
		42 P—R 5

Notes by One of the Judges.

(a) A very weak move, as it enables White to bring about a very strong attack on the K side.

(b) We have several times called attention to the weakness of this play: first, the Kt here accomplishes nothing; second, it gets in the way of the B. The best move, probably, is B—K B 4.

(c) Unnecessary. Playing White's game. He should Castle.

(d) B—K B 4 is in order. White compelling Black to move his Q Kt P very materially weakens Black's K wing.

(e) Not to be commended. Doesn't seem to have any purpose. Black should keep his Q B as long as White has his Q B in an attacking position, with the possibility of getting his Q on K R file. The better move is B—Kt K 5. If White plays P—K B 3 on P—K R 3, then B—K B 4 forcing trade of B. Follow this up by Q—K 3, and, while Black has weakened his game by the position of his Pawns, yet he has at least a fighting chance.

(f) This gives him a very weak Pawn, and yet he is compelled to take. The effect of his 15th move is now apparent.

(g) Simply suicidal. He should play B—B 4 or B—B sq.

(h) Temporizing. P—B 3 will win in short order. He should prevent P—Kt 4. It seems to us, at this stage of the game, that Black should force a Draw.

(i) K—Kt 2 is the move. Black should simply hold his present position, and White can not make any headway.

(j) A blunder. Did not see White's continuation.

(k) Might as well resign now.

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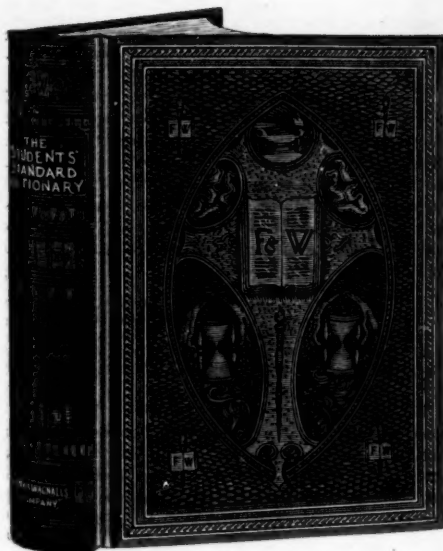
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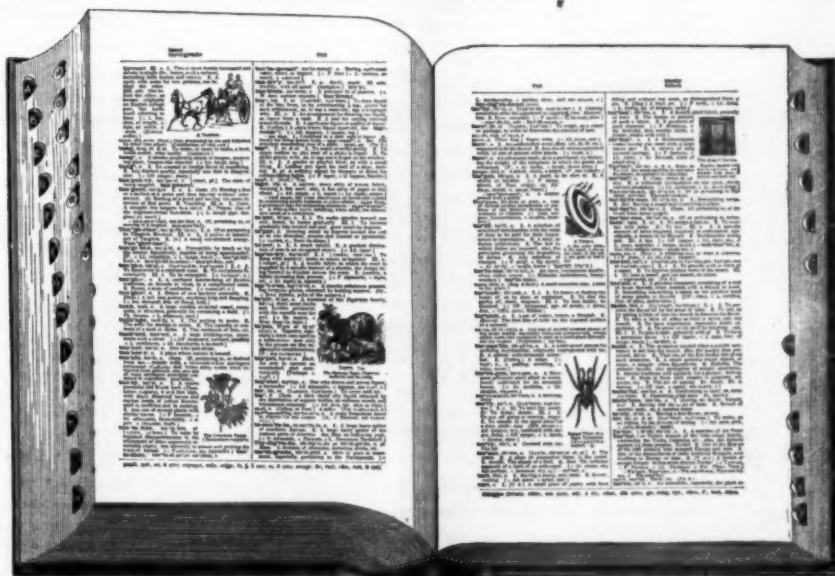
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THE LITERARY DIGEST.

STUDIES IN ENGLISH.

Answers from the Standard Dictionary to Questions of Current Interest.

H. E. G., Plainfield, N. J., asks: "What are the letters of *marque* which I see mentioned in the newspapers?" They are commissions authorizing private persons to take the property of a foreign state or of its subjects, as redress for an injury done by such state or its citizens or subjects. **Letters of marque and reprisal**, as they are called in full, are issued only by governments.

J. C. N., Mt. Meigs, Ala., would like to know the difference between an **antonym** and **synonym**. Well, an **antonym** is a word directly, or almost directly, opposed to another in meaning, while a **synonym** is a word having the same, or almost the same, meaning.

F. E. R., Mountain Lake Park, Md., asks if the use of *over again* in the sentence, "He learnt over again," is permissible. It would be better to say "once again." Evidently, the sense of *over* in this sentence is "with repetition," and as the meaning of *again* as used here is "once more," the redundancy is apparent.

"Of what does a **book** consist?" asks C. S. K., New York. It consists of a number of sheets of paper bound or stitched together. In copyright law a **book** may consist of one sheet. Its character and purpose are the test, not its size.

In reply to several inquiries the correct pronunciation of **Cadiz** is not *ca'diz* but *kê'diz*. The *ê* here has the sound of *a* in *may*. In Spanish the pronunciation is *kâ'dith*, the *â* having the power of *a* in *arm* and the *i* that of *i* in *machine*.

A correspondent, M. G. P., Paterson, N. J., asks if the correct pronunciation of **Matanzas** is *mat'-an-zus*. No, the accent is misplaced and the last syllable mispronounced. The Standard's pronunciation is *mâ-tan'zâs*; the Spanish pronunciation, *mâ-tân'thâs*. In the former, *â* = *a* in *arm*; *a* = *a* in *tan*; *â* = *a* in *sofa*; in the latter the three *â's* have the power of *a* in *arm*.

H. R. M., Shelbyville, Ind., writes: "A friend of mine complains because he can not find the word **causerie** in the Standard. I proved to him that neither the Webster, the International, nor the Century dictionary had it, and traced it to its home in a French dictionary. But it has come into such frequent use lately that I half expected to find it in the Standard."

The following is a definition of **causerie** as given by the Standard Dictionary (see Addenda): **cause'rie**, *côz'ri*, *n.* A free and unconventional treatment or discussion as of literary or historical facts; familiar conversational criticism. [F. < L. *causor*, reason.]

G. E. T., Belfast, Me.: "What is the meaning of the word **reconcentrados** now so frequently used by the daily papers in their Cuban news? What is its correct pronunciation? If an English word why is it not given by the dictionaries?"

The **reconcentrados** are civilians who, under a decree issued by General Weyler, have been brought together from outlying districts and concentrated within certain limits established by the Spanish military authorities. The circles of concentration proving too large, the authorities caused a reconcentration within the actual limits of the towns, hence the concentrated became **concentrados** and the reconcentrated **reconcentrados**. The word is not an English word and has only recently come into use as a Spanish-American word. Its correct pronunciation in Spanish is *rê-kenth-en-trâ'dô*—the *ê* having the power of *o* in *not*, the *ê* that of *e* in *eight*, and the *â* that of *a* in *arm*.

W. M. H., Minneapolis, Minn.: "Is there in the English language a word which designates that part of a farm which is separated from the fields and contains the buildings, orchard, gardens, wind-breaks in the prairie sections, and is the center of operations and place of living? I have been unable to find a word which characterizes this portion of a farm, but have thought of **vitaplace** if a new word is necessary."

There does not appear to be any need for a new word. That which "W. M. H." seeks is **farmstead** or **farm-steading**. As the Standard Dictionary states, the **farmstead**, in its broadest sense, consists of "the dwelling and other buildings on a farm." In its narrow sense the **farmstead** consists of barns and sheds for crops, implements, and machinery.

W. W. L., Winfield, Kas.: "In the instruction to carpenters for constructing work on Prescott's parlor door-hangers, I read 'Width of opening—Add together the width of the two doors, the astricals, and the jamba, and make opening just that width between studs.' As I cannot find **astricals** in any dictionary, please tell me what they are?"

If the quotation which "W. W. L." cites is correctly copied, the spelling of the word **astragal** as **astrical** which it contains is a blunder. The correct spelling is **astragal**, as reference to page 130 of the Standard will show. According to this authority an **astragal** in carpentry "is a small convex molding or bead of semicircular cross-section," or "one of the rabbeted bars holding a window-pane in place." The Standard's authority is sustained by Knight's Mechanical Dictionary and by several dictionaries of the English Language.

R. J. O., Washington, D.C.: "In looking over the Standard Dictionary I find that the word **declaratively** is printed thus: *de-clâr-a-tiv-ly*, having a comma following the syllable 'tiv,' which seems wrong. As I suppose this is a typographical error I take the liberty of drawing your attention to it."

"R. J. O.'s" letter betrays the fact that he did not read the Standard's "Introductory"—a far too common practise nowadays—for had he done so he could not have failed to notice that on page ix the spellings to which he draws attention are explained in the paragraph devoted to "Phonetic Spellings." In part the paragraph reads:

"The American Philological Association and the American Spelling Reform Association recommend the immediate application of the principles of spelling reform to about 3,500 words. These principles have been adopted also by the Philological Society of England. To these reform spellings vocabulary place is given in the Standard, but the definitions will be found generally under the usual form: Each of these new spellings, when not adopted and defined as the preferred form by this Dictionary, is marked with the Abbreviation PHIL. Soc."

Wherever noted after a word, PHIL. Soc. stamps the word as one whose orthography, as there set forth, is approved by the Philological Societies. Thus, instead of **declarative** and **declaratively**, the PHIL. Soc. spellings are **declarativ**, **declaratively**.

M. B. S., Mount Vernon, N. Y.: "Noticing after the name of Prof. Francis A. March, in the Standard Dictionary, the title **L.H.D.**, I turned to the list of abbreviations to learn the meaning of this title but did not find it. Why?"

Very simple. Because it is already defined under **degree**, page 483, col. 1, as follows:

L.H.D. (*Litterarum Humaniorum Doctor*) Doctor of the more humane letters, i.e., the humanities or university studies. An honorary degree like LL.D.

F. H. G., Brownville, N. Y.: "I do not doubt that the words **Arastra** and **Madrone** are in the Standard Dictionary, but I fail to find them. If you can tell me where to find them I wish you would?"

The misspelling of words often leads to such inquiries as the above. If **arastra** had been spelt **arrastre**, and **madrone** spelt **madrona** "F. H. G." would not have had any difficulty in finding them in their proper vocabulary places on pages 116 and 1064 respectively. The first is a mill used "for crushing ore, or, sometimes for amalgamating," the second, "a handsome evergreen tree of northern California, whose yellow berries are eaten by the Indians."

T. A. B., New Orleans, La.: "To decide an argument will you please publish in *The Voice* the value of the Indian **rupee**. A friend contends that the value of this coin as given in the Standard Dictionary is incorrect. He says the **rupee** was never worth 48 cents. I upheld the Standard, but could not convince my friend and now wish to do so."

The Indian **rupee** is a silver coin whose local value is 16 annas. In the money markets of the world the **rupee** has had a fluctuating value for some years. The value given it by the Standard Dictionary, 48½ cents, is an average value based upon reliable authority. The relative value of the money of India and the United States fluctuates with the gold price of silver. Thus, a **rupee** has been worth 54 cents, and for some years 38 cents, but recently it fell below 25 cents. This was due to the depreciation in the value of silver which has seriously affected Indian finances and commerce as well as the trade of the world.

F. A. T., Patchogue, L. I.: "I can not find a definition of **train-oil** in the Standard Dictionary. Surely such an important word deserves to be defined. Please tell me of what **train-oil** consists. Is it in the Standard? If so, where?"

Train-oil, as shown on page 1224, column 3, of the Standard Dictionary, is an illuminant derived from the blubber of certain species of whales. On this account it is known as **whale-oil**, under which heading it is defined by the Standard. If "F. A. T." will take note of the number 42, immediately following the name **whale-oil**, and glance down the list of synonyms given below the table, he will find **train-oil** recorded there.

M. E. B., New York City: "In Mrs. Lincoln's Boston Cook Book I find this sentence: 'This [soup-digester] is a porcelain-lined iron kettle with a **bale**.' I can not find any definition under **bale** in the Standard Dictionary to apply here. Can you help me out?"

The orthography used in the book "M. E. B." quotes from is not etymologically correct. From the sentence cited it is evident that the "porcelain-lined iron kettle" had a **ball** or handle—not a **bale**—and the Standard's definition of **ball** 2, *n.*, on page 154, covers this sense.

A. G. K., Newark, N. J.: "A few days ago one of the New York daily papers published a letter from its Paris correspondent in which he used the words **diagnosticate** and **diagnostication**. The next morning it published a letter signed 'Herbert L. Pick,' in which the writer said, 'I should think the average schoolboy would know that there are no such words in the English language. He probably means **diagnose** and **diagnosis**.' As I find all the words in my Standard Dictionary I am curious to know who is right—the Paris correspondent or the aggressive Mr. Pick."

This is simply a case of "a little knowledge is a dangerous thing." The words **diagnosticate** and **diagnostication** not only exist but are both in good usage. Besides having the authority of the Standard Dictionary, with its 247 experts, these words also have the authority of Foster's Medical Dictionary, Billings' National Medical Dictionary, and of several other dictionaries of the English language.

G. P. H., Cincinnati, Ohio: "Where can I find the words (1) **Coprah**, an island, and (2) **noncupative** in my Standard Dictionary?"

(1) **The Island of Cobras** is in the Bay of Rio de Janeiro, off Brazil. See the Standard Dictionary, page 2140. The orthography which "G. P. H." uses is not recognized by the United States Board on Geographic Names, but that given by the Standard is. (2) The term **noncupative** is not so spelled nowadays. The preferred and etymologically correct form is **nuncupative**. See page 1207 col. 3, of the Standard Dictionary, where the definition reads:

"**Law**. Oral as distinguished from written: said especially of a will declared by the testator in immediate fear of death, before witnesses, and afterward reduced to writing; generally invalid unless made by soldiers in active service or sailors at sea."

From several correspondents *THE VOICE* has received inquiries for words which according to their different points of view should be in the Standard Dictionary. One complains because he fails to find **aparent**, another expresses his surprise that "such an important word as **isogesis**" is not included in the Standard vocabulary, and yet another who wants to know what a **stigmatism** is grows indignant because "no such word is in the Standard"; a fourth condemns all the dictionaries in the local library because **amaphrodite**, a term common among seamen, is not so much as included by them. To these unfortunates *THE VOICE* commends the advice of Richard Caudrey, who compiled the first "Table Alphabetically, conteynyng and teaching the true writing and understanding of hard usuall English wordes." Said Caudrey: "If thou be desirous (gentle reader) rightly and readily to understand and to profit by this table, and such like, then thou must learn the alphabet, to wit, the order of the letters as they stand, perfectly without book, and where every letter standeth; as (b) neere the beginning, (n) about the midst, and (t) toward the end." Without the knowledge of how words are spelt it will be difficult indeed to consult a dictionary profitably; **aparent** should be **aperient**, **isogesis** should be **eisogesis**; **stigmatism**, **astigmatism**; and **amaphrodite**, **hermaphrodite**. All these words are in their proper alphabetical places in the Standard. The profitable and pleasant study of a dictionary assumes some knowledge of orthography.